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Polysorbate 20 (Tween 20) CASRN: 9005-64-5	polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monolaurate CAS Name: sorbitan, monododecanoate, poly(oxy- 1,2-ethanediyl) derivs.	dodecanoyl group	sorbitan polyoxyethylene (20) unit	38 mN/m at 8.04×10 ⁻⁵ M (0.001 wt%) and 21°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Kim< Year>2001<r ecnum="">14756<displaytext>[35]</displaytext>=cord><recnumber>14756</recnumber><foreign-keys><key <="" app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" th=""><th>M.J. rs><ti>tles><title>Surfactant s and interfacial phenomena phenomena title></t</td> itles><pages>431, <pages><dates><yea</td> r>1989</pe> year></date</td> s><pub-</td> location>New York</pub-</td> location><publisher> John Wiley & amp; Sons, Inc.</publisher><urls</td> ></urls></record> Cite></EndNote>] 8.04×10-5 M or 0.001 wt% at 21°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><A</td> uthor>Kim</dd> <Year><2001</td> Year> <RecNum><14756</rd> <RecNum><14756</rd> recnumber><14756</rd> number><14756</rd> recnumber><foreign-</td> keys><key app="EN"</td> db- id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s</th></tr></tbody></table></title></ti></th></key></foreign-keys></r></au></cite></endnote>	M.J. rs> <ti>tles><title>Surfactant s and interfacial phenomena phenomena title></t</td> itles><pages>431, <pages><dates><yea</td> r>1989</pe> year></date</td> s><pub-</td> location>New York</pub-</td> location><publisher> John Wiley & amp; Sons, Inc.</publisher><urls</td> ></urls></record> Cite></EndNote>] 8.04×10-5 M or 0.001 wt% at 21°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><A</td> uthor>Kim</dd> <Year><2001</td> Year> <RecNum><14756</rd> <RecNum><14756</rd> recnumber><14756</rd> number><14756</rd> recnumber><foreign-</td> keys><key app="EN"</td> db- id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s</th></tr></tbody></table></title></ti>
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Polysorbate 80 (Tween 80)	polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monooleate	octadecenoyl	sorbitan polyoxyethylene	37.96 mN/m at 5 g/L (0.5 wt%) and 30°C [s> <br EndNote>] 1.5×10 ⁻⁵ M or 0.002 wt% at 25°C [
CASRN: 9005-65-6	CAS Name: sorbitan, mono- (9Z)-9-octadecenoate, poly(oxy-1,2-ethanediyl) derivs.	group	(20) unit	ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Kothekar<year>2007</year> <recnum>14758CDisplayText></recnum></au></cite></endnote>	ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Mahmood<year>2013<recnum>1475 7</recnum><displa< td=""></displa<></year></cite></endnote>
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Poloxamer 188	CAS Name: oxirane, 2-	polyoxypropylene	two	~42-44 mN/m at ~0.5	4.8×10 ⁻⁴ M or 0.4
CASRN: 691397-13-4	methyl-, polymer with oxirane, triblock	(27) unit	polyoxyethylene (80) units	wt% and 36°C [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]	wt% at 37°C [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]
N,N-dimethyl-	lauryl dimethylamine oxide	dodecyl group	amine oxide unit	34.1 mN/m at 1 g/L	1.7×10 ⁻³ M or 0.039
dodecylamine-N-oxide (C ₁₂ AO)***	CAS Name:1-dodecanamine, N,N-dimethyl-, N-oxide			(0.1 wt%) and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE	wt% [ADDIN EN.CITE
CASRN: 1643-20-5	N,N-difficulty1-, N-oxide			<endnote><cite><au< td=""><td><endnote><cite><a< td=""></a<></cite></endnote></td></au<></cite></endnote>	<endnote><cite><a< td=""></a<></cite></endnote>
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oleoyl sarcosine	CAS Name: glycine, N-	oleyl group	carboxylic acid	31.91 mN/m at 0.1	2.6×10 ⁻³ wt% and
G 4 G P 3 T 4 1 G 2 T G	methyl-N-((9Z)-1-oxo-9-		anion	wt% and 19.9°C** [~25°C **
CASRN: 110-25-8	octadecen-1-y			ADDIN EN.CITE	(temperature not
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sodium lauroyl sarcosinate CASRN: 137-16-6	CAS Name: glycine, N-methyl-N-(1-oxododecyl)-, sodium salt (1:1)	lauryl group	carboxylic acid anion	40.5 mN/m at 2 wt% and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Dossier<year>2020</year> <recnum>14770<displaytext> [45]</displaytext>record><recnumber>14770</recnumber>foreign-keys><key <="" app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" td=""><td>8.0×10⁻² wt% and ~25°C (temperature not reported, assumed to be room temperature) [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>ChattemChemi cals<year>2020</year><recn um="">14769</recn></cite></endnote></td></key></recnum><displaytext>[44] </displaytext><rec rd=""><rec number="">14769</rec>14769</rec></au></cite></endnote>	8.0×10 ⁻² wt% and ~25°C (temperature not reported, assumed to be room temperature) [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>ChattemChemi cals<year>2020</year><recn um="">14769</recn></cite></endnote>

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dioctyl sulfosuccinate sodium salt (DOSS) CASRN: 577-11-7	dioctyl sodium sulfosuccinate CAS Name: Butanedioic acid, 2-sulfo-, 1,4-bis(2- ethylhexyl) ester, sodium salt	two 2-ethyl hexyl groups	sulfosuccinate group	<pre><28 mN/m at 0.5 vol% and 25°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Williams<year>1957</year> <reenum>14755<displaytext> [46]</displaytext> [46]<record><rec- number="">14755<foreign- keys=""><key app="EN" db-="" id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0 azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="15960241 80">14755</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17<contributors><author>Willia ms, E.F.</author><author> Woodberry, N.T.</author><author>Dixon, J.K.</author></contributors></ref-type></foreign-></rec-></record></reenum></au></cite></endnote></pre>	6.8×10 ⁻⁴ M or 0.03 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Mukerjee<year>1971<recnum>1476 5</recnum><displa ytext="">[41]=foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s r" timestamp="1596026 897">14765</key><reftype name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>Mukerjee, P.</author><author>Mysels, K.J.</author></contributors></displa></year></cite></endnote>

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Cationic Surfactants						
		Criteria 1		Criteria 2	Criteria 3	
Chemical Name in Text	Other Relevant Names	Hydrophobic group(s)	Hydrophilic group(s)	Surface Tension	Critical Micelle Concentration (CMC)	
benzalkonium chloride (BAC) CASRN: 8001-54-5	CAS Name: quaternary ammonium compounds, alkylbenzyldimethyl, chlorides	alkyl chains are C12, C14, C16 and C18 and benzyl group	quaternary nitrogen	37 mN/m at concentrations greater than about 4×10 ⁻⁴ M and 25°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Nandni<year>2013</year> <recnum>14766CisplayText> [47] record><recnumber>14766</recnumber>foreign-keys><key 33"="" app="EN" azr5evearxfds0err5sr"="" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" timestamp="15960270">14766</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Nand ni.</author></contributors></recnum></au></cite></endnote>	C12: reported values range from 2.3 - 8.5×10 ⁻³ M or 0.078 - 0.29 wt% at 25°C C14: 3.7×10 ⁻⁴ M or 0.014 wt% and ~25°C (temperature not stated; assumed to be room temperature) C16: 4.2×10 ⁻⁵ M or 0.0016 wt% at 23°C C18: reported values range from 7.1 - 8.5×10 ⁻⁶ M or 0.0003 - 0.00036 wt% at 23°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>MukerjeeYear>1971 5Cisplay yText>[41]</cite></endnote>	

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didecyldimethyl ammonium chloride (DDAC) CASRN: 7173-51-5	CAS Name: 1- decanaminium, N-decyl-N,N- dimethyl-, chloride (1:1)	decyl groups	quaternary nitrogen	25.82 mN/m at 1 g/L (0.1 wt%) and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor>Dossier><year>2020</year> <recnum>14771cNum><displaytext> [48]</displaytext><r ecord><rec- number>14771</rec- number><foreign-< td=""><td>0.39 g/L or 0.039 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><a uthor>Dossieror><year>2020ar><recnum>14771 </recnum><display Text>[48]ext><record><rec number><foreign-< td=""></foreign-<></rec </record></display </year></a </cite></endnote></td></foreign-<></r </recnum></au </cite></endnote>	0.39 g/L or 0.039 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><a uthor>Dossieror><year>2020ar><recnum>14771 </recnum><display Text>[48]ext><record><rec number><foreign-< td=""></foreign-<></rec </record></display </year></a </cite></endnote>

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^{*}Not all of the surface tension measurement references identified are run at exactly 20°C, but they are sufficiently close (within 5°C) so as not to affect the measurement. In addition, several measurements were run at 0.1% instead of the recommended 0.5%. Increasing the concentration to 0.5% is likely to lower the surface tension.

^{**}Carboxylic acid compounds, such as oleoyl sarcosine, have a carboxyl group pKa value of ~5, thus at physiological pH values maintained near 7 in the lung, the carboxyl group will be 99% in the anionic form according the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation. Since sodium is the major cation in mammalian body fluids (~145 mM), the use of the sodium oleoyl sarcosine surface tension value is appropriate for its characterization.

^{***}Amphoteric: At pH 7, 90% expected to be nonionic; only small amount cationic.

Hazard Identification

There is concern for dysfunction of mucus, epithelial lining fluid, and natural surfactant lining in the various regions of the respiratory tract from inhalation of surfactants. There is also evidence that some surfactants or similar structures may also interfere with the cell membrane of the epithelium in these same regions [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. This effect on cell membranes is apparent from data on numerous surfactants indicating irritation to the skin and eye, as noted below. The capacity of exogenous surfactants to interfere with pulmonary surfactant and impair pulmonary function has been demonstrated in both human volunteers and in laboratory animals [51, 5-7]. The respiratory tract responses to inhaled surfactant aerosol is thought to be in proportion to the exposure concentration and duration, but available data on acute and repeated-dose effect levels are limited within each subcategory, which limits establishing a correlation between chemical properties and toxicity due to exposure methods (e.g., generated aerosol droplet size).

Nonionic Surfactants

In vivo studies

Several studies were identified for the nonionic siliconized superinone respiratory detergent, 4-(1,1,3,3-tetramethylbutyl)phenol polymer with formaldehyde and oxirane (CASRN 25301-02-4; commonly known as Defomarie, Alevaire, and Tyloxapol). Healthy human volunteers demonstrated significantly decreased respiratory compliance following acute inhalation of Defomaire [ADDIN EN.CITE

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J. L.</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Effects of surface-active aerosols and
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(Alcohols)
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451W47IQ8X (Sodium Chloride)</call-num><urls></urls></remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-database-

provider><language>Eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. An increased minimum surface tension due to detergent was shown to be dose-dependent, using pulmonary surfactant extracted from dogs with the nonionic surfactant tyloxapol (Alevaire) *in vitro* [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. However, *in vivo* exposure of dogs to Alevaire (8-hour aerosol exposure; vehicle, particle size and distribution, and concentration not reported) produced little effect (only 1/10 dogs exposed to Alevaire showed increased minimum surface tension). The results did not support the dose-dependence of the effect and indicated that small amounts of detergent in the lungs may not detectably alter the surface tension-surface area relationship and that alteration of surface tension is unlikely to occur during reasonable use although there is considerable uncertainty regarding the internal dose achieved [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA].

Inhalation studies using dogs and/or sheep exposed to nonionic surfactant, tyloxapol, resulted in reduced oxygen content of arterial blood due to impaired gas exchange in the lung, increased pulmonary extravascular water volume and wet-to-dry weight ratio of the lungs, and grossly visible pulmonary edema and atelectasis (*i.e.*, collapsed alveoli) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. In the study by Modell *et al.* (1969) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA], no gross pathology differences were seen in detergent-exposed versus control lungs of dogs, although some portions of both control and exposed lungs were heavy and discolored reddish-purple, which may have been caused by fluid accumulation from the liquid

aerosol exposures and/or the use of hypotonic saline in the study (0.45% NaCl) since these effects were not observed in lungs treated with a less dense aerosol. Normal appearances were observed in the remaining areas of the lungs.

In rodents, irritation and inflammatory effects in the entire respiratory tract have been observed with varying degrees of severity. Acute inhalation exposure via nose-only administration for 4 hours in Wistar Han rats to a concentration of 5.1 mg/L (5,100 mg/m³) with an MMAD of 2.2 μ m and a GSD of 2 to Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated (CASRN 9005-64-5), a chemical not irritating to the skin or eyes [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14776</RecNum></DisplayText>[52]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14776</rec-number><foreign-

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Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration

Dossier</author></authors></contributors><title>Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated, 1 -

6.5 moles ethoxylated, CASRN: 9005-64-5, EC number: 500-018-3, Skin

irritation/corrosion</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-

title></title> <periodical><full-title>European Chemicals Agency</full-

title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-/registered-

dossier/13525/7/4/2</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite>

</EndNote>], did not result in an increase in mortalities, clinical signs, or abnormalities in the

gross pathology [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14777</RecNum

><DisplayText>[53]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14777</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596030813">14777</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration Dossier</author></authors></contributors></title>Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated 1 -6.5 moles ethoxylated, CASRN: 9005-64-5, EC number: 500-018-3, Acute Toxicity: Inhalation</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondarytitle></title> </title> </title> European Chemicals Agency</fulltitle></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-/registereddossier/13525/7/3/3</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite> </EndNote>]. A respiratory irritation study using plethysmography was performed on a mixture containing octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA], which can be severely irritating to the skin and eyes, in male Webster mice exposed for 3 hours to concentrations of 12, 22, 51, 118, and 134 mg/m³ with 30-60 minutes recovery time (MMAD and GSD not provided). Signs of pulmonary irritation were observed in animals at the two highest concentrations as indicated by a decrease in respiratory frequency (33-58% decrease); this response was preceded by an increase in respiratory frequency (11-12.5% increase) at the highest three concentrations without an increase in gross lung abnormalities, pulmonary edema, or lung weight [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Alarie</Author><Year>1992</Year><RecNum>14778</RecNum> <DisplayText>\[54\]/DisplayText><record><rec-number>14778</rec-number><foreign-</pre> keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596035219">14778</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>>Alarie, Y.</author><author>>Stock, M.F.</author></author>></contributors><titles><title>Respiratory Irritancy on a Mixture containing Polyethylene Glycol Mono(Octyl)Phenyl Eether CAS #9035-19-5</title><secondary-title>ChemView - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>ChemView - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>37,

https://chemview.epa.gov/chemview/proxy?filename=09022526800b76c9_86960000465_09-26-2011_8D_PHCS_Original%20-

%2086960000465.pdf</pages><dates><year>1992</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cit e></EndNote>]. An acute inhalation exposure study in Syrian hamsters exposed to 3.0 mg/L of octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol with varying exposure durations showed that lung deposition directly corresponded to mortality with an LD50 of 1300-2100 μ g with an MMAD of 1.47 μ m and a GSD of 1.84 [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Damon</Author><Year>1982</Year><RecNum>13323</RecNum
><DisplayText>[55]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>13323</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
timestamp="1479320592">13323</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal"

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><authors><author>Damon, E.

G.</author><author>Halliwell, W. H.</author><author>Henderson, T.

R.</author><author>Mokler, B. V.</author><author>Jones, R.

K.</author></authors></contributors><title>>Acute toxicity of polyethylene glycol pisooctylphenol ether in syrian hamsters exposed by inhalation or bronchopulmonary lavage</title><secondary-title>Toxicology and applied pharmacology</secondary-title><alt-

title>Toxicol Appl Pharmacol</alt-title></title><periodical><full-title>Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology</full-title><abbr-1>Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.</abbr-1></periodical><pages>53-61</pages><volume>63</volume><number>1</number><edition>Damon, E G
Halliwell, W H
Henderson, T R
Mokler, B V
Jones, R K
1982/03/30</edition><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword> </keyword><keyword>Detergents/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Dose-Response Relationship, Drug</keyword><keyword>Female</keyword><keyword>Lethal Dose 50</keyword><keyword>Lung/ drug effects/pathology</keyword><keyword>Male</keyword>Mesocricetus</keyword>< keyword>Octoxynol</keyword>ekeyword>Polyethylene Glycols/administration & amp; dosage/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Surface-Active Agents/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Therapeutic Irrigation</keyword></keywords><dates><year>1982</year><pub-dates><date>Mar 30</date></pub-dates></dates><isbn>0041-008X (Print)0041-008X (Linking)</isbn><accession-num>7071873</accession-num><call-num>0 (Detergents)0 (Surface-Active Agents)
30IQX730WE (Polyethylene Glycols)
9002-93-1 (Octoxynol)</call-num><urls></urls><remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-databaseprovider><language>Eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The deaths in these animals were attributed to severe laryngeal edema and ulcerative laryngitis while the lower airways in these animals were relatively free of serious pathologies which likely indicates limited deposition to the lower airways in this study. The authors hypothesized that these observed effects were due to large tracheobronchial deposition following the aerosol exposure and the

mucociliary clearance of the chemical resulted in a large concentration on the laryngeal mucosa,

though laryngeal deposition is typically a function of aerodynamics. In the only 2-week whole-body inhalation study for nonionic surfactants, male and female Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed to 5.3 and 10.3 mg/m³ (5/sex/dose; MMAD 1.8 µm, GSD 1.8) octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Slight to minimal subacute inflammation of the alveolar walls and hyperplasia of the alveolar/bronchiolar epithelium was reported, in addition to an increase in slight discoloration of the lungs, increased lung weight, and mucoid nasal discharge; a LOAEC of 5.3 mg/m³ was identified.

Mechanistic studies

In vitro studies of surfactant on cell membranes have provided evidence of possible modes of action (MOAs). Warisnoicharoen *et al.* (2003) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] evaluated the cytotoxicity of the nonionic surfactants polyoxyethylene-10-oleyl ether (C_{18:1}E₁₀; CASRN 9004-98-2), polyoxyethylene-10-dodecyl ether (C₁₂E₁₀; CASRN 9002-92-0), and N,N-dimethyl-dodecylamine-N-oxide (C₁₂AO; CASRN 1643-20-5) on submerged cultured human bronchial epithelium cells (16-HBE14o-) *in vitro*, using the MTT cell viability assay by exposing the cells to 0.1mL of the serially diluted microemulsion (particle size not reported) for 30 minutes followed by a 60 minute incubation with a MTT solution. All surfactants tested were cytotoxic at concentrations near or below their critical aggregation (micellular) concentrations (as determined by surface tension measurements), suggesting that toxicity was due to the disruption caused by the partitioning of monomeric surfactant into the cell membrane.

Lindenberg et al. (2019) [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Lindenberg</Author><Year>2019</Year><RecNum>14779</Rec

Num><DisplayText>[57]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14779</rec-number><foreign-

keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"

timestamp="1596035601">14779</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal"

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Lindenberg,

F.</author><author>Lechevrel, M.</author><author>Respaud,

R.</author><author>Saint-Lorant,

G.</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Evaluation of Lung Cell Toxicity of

Surfactants for Inhalation Route</title><secondary-title>Journal of Toxicology and risk

assessment</secondary-title></title></periodical><full-title>Journal of Toxicology and risk

assessment</full-title></periodical><pages>https://doi.org/10.23937/2572-

4061.1510022</pages><volume>5</volume><number>1</number><dates><year>2019</year>

</dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>] evaluated the cytotoxic activity of the three

nonionic polymeric surfactants Polysorbate 20 (CASRN 9005-64-5), Polysorbate 80 (Tween 80)

and Poloxamer 188 (CASRN 691397-13-4), which are commonly used in formulations of

nebulized pharmaceuticals to prevent protein agglomeration, in a BEAS-2B human bronchial

epithelial cell model using an innovative air-liquid interface (ALI) method of exposure with a

nasal spray system (MMAD and GSD not provided). In this study, the ALI results were

compared to the classical submerged cell culture or liquid/liquid (L/L) model. The study

measured the release of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), an intercellular enzyme present in the

cytoplasm, indicative of the loss of membrane integrity. Cytotoxicity of Polysorbate 20 was

observed at concentrations of 1-2% (v/v) when using the more biologically relevant ALI method;

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however, a significant increase in LDH was only observed at 4% for Polysorbate 80 and not significantly increased at concentrations of up to 10% for Poloxamer 188. These results suggest that Polysorbate 20 and to a lesser extent, Polysorbate 80 induce damage to the cell membrane integrity while the linear Poloxamer 188 did not demonstrate any *in vitro* cytotoxicity.

The available in vitro and in vivo data indicate inconsistency in respiratory toxicity among nonionic surfactants; however, the degree to which the variation is due to experimental design or bioactivity of the surfactant is not discernible from these data. The small dataset presented in this section preclude establishing correlations between respiratory effects and chemical properties, such as surface tension or CMC. Similarly, the examination of the relationship between chemical properties of nonionic surfactants and eye irritation has not established that hydrophiliclipophilic balance, pH, alkyl chain length, or poly [oxyethylene] chain lengths can be used to predict eye irritation potential across the nonionic surfactant subcategory [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Heinze</Author><Year>1999</Year><RecNum>14780</RecNum ><DisplayText>[58]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14780</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596035990">14780</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><authors><author>Heinze, J.E.</author><author>Casterton, P.L.</author><author>Atrash, J.</author></authors></contributors></title>Relative Eye Irritation Potential of Nonionic Surfactants: Correlation to Dynamic Surface Tension</title><secondary-title>Journal of toxicology: cutaneous and ocular toxicology</secondary-title></title>><periodical><full-

title>Journal of toxicology: cutaneous and ocular toxicology</full-

title></periodical><pages>359-374,

https://doi.org/10.3109/15569529909065552</pages><volume>18</volume><dates><year>199
9</year></dates><urls></urls></record></EndNote>]. However, significant correlations
of eye irritation and the maximum reduction in surface tension were observed at the CMC or
higher surfactant concentration when surface tension was measured under dynamic conditions
(0.24, 1, and 4 bubbles/second). Whether this chemical property similarly predicts potency of
nonionic surfactants for respiratory effects requires additional data and analysis outside of the
scope of this summary.

Anionic Surfactants

In vivo studies

Two acute inhalation toxicity studies were identified for anionic surfactants, both demonstrated high toxicity *via* the inhalation route. Oleoyl sarcosine (CASRN 110-25-8), irritating to the skin and damaging to the eye [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14781</RecNum

><DisplayText>[59]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14781</rec-number><foreign-

keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"

timestamp = "1596036160" > 14781 < / key > < / foreign-keys > < ref-type name = "Journal" | foreign-keys > <

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration

Dossier</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>N-methyl-N-[C18-

(unsaturated)alkanoyl]glycine, CASRN: NA, EC number: 701-177-3, Skin

irritation/corrosion</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-

title></title> Chemicals Agency full-title> European Chemicals Agency title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-/registereddossier/21429/7/4/2/?documentUUID=fbaef057-ecc7-4763-aa56-1fa2c88c606c</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates></urls></record></Cite></End Note>], was evaluated in a 4-hour nose-only inhalation study in male and female Sprague-Dawley rats at concentrations of 0.3, 0.6, 2.2, and 3.7 mg/L (300, 600, 2,200, 3,700 mg/m³). The MMAD and GSD were not reported. An LC₅₀ of 1.37 mg/L was identified with edema of the lung at 0.6 mg/L and audible gasping at 0.3 mg/L. For sodium lauroyl sarcosinate (CASRN 137-16-6), irritating to the skin and corrosive to the eye (undiluted) [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14782</RecNum ><DisplayText>[60]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14782</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596036284">14782</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration Dossier</author></authors></contributors></title>Sodium N-lauroylsarcosinate, CASRN: 137-16-6, EC number: 205-281-5, Eye Irritation</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-title></titles><periodical><full-title>European Chemicals Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-/registereddossier/14123/7/4/3</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite> </EndNote>], 5 male Wistar rats were exposed to a 4-hour nose-only inhalation concentration of 0.05, 0.5, 1, and 5 mg/L (50, 500, 1,000, and 5,000 mg/m³) with a MMAD of 4.4, 2.9, 3.7, and

6.0 µm; and GSD of 2.7, 3, 4.2, and 2.9, respectively. Additionally, 5 female rats were exposed

to 1.1 or 5.5 mg/L with a MMAD 3.7 or 6.0 μm and GSD of 4.2 or 2.9, respectively [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14782</RecNum

><DisplayText>[60, 61]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14782</rec-number><foreign-

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Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration

Dossier</author></authors></contributors></title>Sodium N-lauroylsarcosinate,

CASRN: 137-16-6, EC number: 205-281-5, Eye Irritation</title><secondary-title>European

Chemicals Agency</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>European Chemicals

Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-

/registered-

dossier/14123/7/4/3</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite>

<Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14783</RecNum><record><

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keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>Registration

Dossier</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Sodium N-lauroylsarcosinate,

CASRN: 137-16-6, EC number: 205-281-5, Acute Toxicity: Inhalation</title><secondary-

title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-title></title>><periodical><full-title>European

Chemicals Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-

dossier/-/registered-

dossier/14123/7/3/3</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The 5 mg/L dose resulted in fatality in all 10 animals (males and females) tested within 1-2 h of dosing and the 0.5 mg/L dose resulted in fatality for 4/5 of the males and exposure to 1 mg/L resulted in fatalities for the 10 animals (males and females) within 1-2 days of exposure. Males exposed to 0.05 mg/L did not demonstrate any adverse clinical signs or mortality at the conclusion of the study. At necropsy, red foci were noted on the lungs in males and females receiving concentrations of \geq 0.5 mg/L. The LC50 was reported to be 0.05-0.5 mg/L.

Repeated-dose inhalation studies were identified for oleoyl sarcosine, and dioctyl sodium sulfosuccinate (CASRN 577-11-7). Oleoyl sarcosine was evaluated in a 28-day nose-only inhalation study (6 hours/day, 5 days/week; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] Test Guideline [TG] 412) in male and female Fischer rats (5/group/sex) using concentrations of 0, 0.006, 0.02, or 0.06 mg/L (0, 6, 20, or 60 mg/m³). The particle exposure MMAD was 1.11, 1.15, or 1.22 µm, GSD 1.68-2.57, and density 0.79 g/cm² for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week in 10% ethanol [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14784</RecNum>
Cite></EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14784</RecNum>
Cite></EndNote></EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote><EndNote
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Dioctyl sulfosuccinate sodium salt (DOSS; CASRN 577-11-7) was evaluated in a 13-week inhalation study in male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (12/group/sex). Rats were exposed to an aerosol of a product containing 0.0042 mg/L (4.2 mg/m³) DOSS, for 4 hours a day, 5 days a week (as reported in a secondary source; exposure details, MMAD, and GSD not reported) [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>CIR</Author><Year>2013</Year><RecNum>14785</RecNum>
DisplayText>[63]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14785</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"

timestamp="1596037107">14785</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>CIR</author></author></contributors><title>><author>CIR</author></author></author> fety Assessment of Alkyl Sulfosuccinate Salts as Used in Cosmetics, Re-Review, CIR Expert Panel Meeting, June 10-11, 2013</title><secondary-title>Cosmetic Ingredient Review (CIR), Washington, D.C.</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Cosmetic Ingredient Review (CIR), Washington, D.C.</full-title></periodical><pages>171, https://www.cirsafety.org/sites/default/files/Sulfosuccinates_RR.pdf</pages><dates><year>2013</year></dates ><urls></urls></record></EndNote>]. There were no statistically significant differences in exposed and control groups for the mean body weight gain, survival, appearance and behavior, urinalysis values, and microscopic lesions. Significant differences were noted in the blood as indicated by elevated erythrocytic values (not otherwise specified) at 7 weeks and depressed mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration values at 13 weeks in male rats. In females, depressed serum glutamic pyruvic transaminase and significant effect on absolute heart weight was observed at 7 weeks, depressed serum alkaline phosphatase was observed at 13 weeks and elevated glucose at 7 and 13-weeks. At 7 weeks, the lungs of necropsied animals showed scattered foci of neutrophils and an increase in alveolar macrophages were reported in a single exposed male rat. A LOAEC of 4.2 mg/m³ was identified based on the blood effects in male rats.

Mechanistic studies

Mechanistic studies on the pulmonary effects of anionic surfactants have been studied in dogs, rabbits, and sheep exposed to DOSS.

Increased minimum surface tension of lung extract or bronchioalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) was observed in dogs and sheep following *in vivo* aerosol exposure to DOSS in 1:1 mixture of ethanol and saline for 30 – 60 minutes, at a concentration that was selected to ensure a moderate degree of edema (estimated dose of 15 mg detergent/kg body weight) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Anesthetized dogs were exposed *via* a ventilator to particle sizes of 0.5 to 15 μm with an MMAD of 3 μm (no GSD reported). Light microscopic examination of the lungs 4 hours after exposure to DOSS aerosol observed no grossly destructive effects on alveolar cells or lung architecture in exposed dogs. However, a decrease in pulmonary compliance was observed that the authors hypothesized was due to an increase in surface tension in the alveoli in the presence of detergent.

Alveolar-capillary barrier permeability studies using radiolabeled aerosol tracers have evaluated whether detergents effect the surfactant layer to increase alveolar permeability. Inhalation exposure to DOSS enhanced the pulmonary elimination of radiolabeled diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA; CASRN 67-43-6) a relatively small hydrophilic molecule, indicating an increased alveolar permeability after detergent exposure [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. In most studies, this effect on alveolar permeability was seen in the absence of effects on blood gas levels or pulmonary compliance that occurs with higher exposure, indicating that the increase in alveolar permeability is a sensitive effect of detergent aerosol. The effect was demonstrated to be concentration-related in rabbits exposed to multiple dilutions (0.125, 0.25, 0.5, and 2%) with a MMAD of 1.7 μm of the liquid detergent [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Studies also evaluated the elimination of a radiolabeled aerosol of albumin, a much larger molecule, which was enhanced by DOSS as well, but to a lesser

degree than DTPA [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Wang et al. (1993) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] observed an increase in protein flux from plasma to alveolar space after DOSS inhalation in sheep, which was attributed to disruption of the alveolar lining and increased microvascular permeability. The increased alveolar permeability observed in these studies was hypothesized to be a result of increased alveolar surface tension, which may result in increased permeability by opening previously closed pores (through which solutes pass) in the membrane or by stretching already open pores [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. However, as noted, surfactants can disrupt cell membranes; thus, this mechanism may be an alternate explanation [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Burden</Author><Year>2012</Year><RecNum>14727</RecNum ><DisplayText>[1]</DisplayText><recond><rec-number>14727</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596017177">14727</key></foreign-keys></ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Burden, D.W.</author></authors></contributors></title>Guide to the Disruption of Biological Samples - 2012, Version 1.1.</title><secondary-title>Random Primers</secondarytitle></title></periodical><full-title>Random Primers</full-title></periodical><pages>1-25</pages><number>12</number><dates><year>2012</year></dates><urls></urls></record> </Cite></EndNote>].

Cationic Surfactants

In vivo studies

Three acute inhalation toxicity studies were identified for cationic surfactants; one study each for

Commented [A26]: ADD LARSEN ET AL - KEITH

DDAC, dioctadecyldimethylammonium chloride (DODMAC; CASRN 107-64-2), and BAC.

DDAC, which is corrosive to the skin and severely damaging to the eye [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14786</RecNum

><DisplayText>[71]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14786</rec-number><foreign-

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timestamp="1596038295">14786</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration

Dossier</author></authors></contributors></title>Didecyldimethylammonium chloride,

CASRN: 7173-51-5, EC number: 230-525-2, Skin irritation/corrosion</title><secondary-

title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>European

Chemicals Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-

dossier/-/registered-

dossier/5864/7/4/2</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite><

/EndNote>], was tested in rats (5/sex/dose, unspecified strain) exposed via inhalation to 0.05,

0.09, 0.13, 0.25, 1.36, or 4.54 mg/L (50, 90, 130, 250, 1,360, or 4,540 mg/m³) for 2 hours with

an observation period of 14 days (no additional exposure conditions reported). An LC₅₀ of 0.07

mg/L was identified based on unspecified abnormalities identified in several organs including the

lungs [ADDIN EN.CITE

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https://archive.epa.gov/pesticides/reregistration/web/pdf/ddac_red.pdf</pages><volume>EPA73 9-R-06-

008</volume><dates><year>2006</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

A similar quaternary amine, DODMAC, which is irritating to the skin and causes serious damage to the eyes [ADDIN EN.CITE

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address>Department of Toxicology and Carcinogenesis, Nofer Institute of Occupational Medicine, Łódź, Poland. radek@imp.lodz.pl</auth-address><titles><title>Pulmonary irritation after inhalation exposure to benzalkonium chloride in rats</title>csecondary-title>Int J Occup Med Environ Health</secondary-title><alt-title>International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health</alt-title></title>cperiodical><full-title>International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health</full-title>cabbr-1>Int J Occup Med Environ Health</abbr-1></periodical><alt-periodical><full-title>International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health</full-title>International journal of occupational medicine and environmental health</full-title>cabbr-1>Int J Occup Med Environ Health</abbr-1></alt-periodical><pages>157-63</pages>
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Exposure</keyword><keyword>Lung Diseases/*chemically
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resource-num><remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-database-

provider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The LC₅₀ was reported to be approximately 53 mg/m³ and BALF analysis reported increased inflammatory markers such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-a, interleukin (IL)-6. Indicators of respiratory tract damage, including increased LDH, total protein, and lung weight were also observed.

Three repeated dose inhalation studies of three different exposure durations were identified for DDAC: 14-day, 28-day, and 90-day.

In the 14-day study, male Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed *via* whole-body inhalation exposures to DDAC aerosols of 0.15 mg/m³, 0.6 mg/m³, and 3.6 mg/m³ for 6 hours/day, 7 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Lim</Author><Year>2014</Year><RecNum>14790</RecNum>

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Y. H.</author></authors></contributors><auth-address>Toxicity Research Team, Occupational Safety and Health Research Institute, KOSHA, Daejeon, Korea.</auth-

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Lim, C. H.</author><author>Chung,

address><title>Effects of didecyldimethylammonium chloride on sprague-dawley rats after two weeks of inhalation exposure</title><secondary-title>Toxicol Res</secondary-title>Calt-title>Toxicological research
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title>Toxicol Res</full-title><abbr-1>Toxicological research</abbr-1></alt-

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10</pages><volume>30</volume><number>3</number><edition>2014/10/25</edition><keywords><keyword>Biocide</keyword><keyword>Didecyldimethylammoniumchloride</keyword><keyword>Inhalation</keyword></keywords><dates><year>2014</year>

pub-dates><date>Sep</date></pub-dates></dates><isbn>1976-8257 (Print)1976-8257</isbn><accession-num>25343015</accession-num><urls></urls><custom2>PMC4206748</custom2><electronic-resource-num>10.5487/tr.2014.30.3.205</electronic-resource-num><remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-database-provider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The study authors reported an MMAD of 1.86 μm and a GSD of 2.75; however, individual values for each exposure

an MMAD of 1.86 μm and a GSD of 2.75; however, individual values for each exposure concentration were not provided. Mild effects were noted in cell differential counts and cell damage parameters in BALF, in addition to inflammatory cell infiltration, and interstitial pneumonia at the medium and high exposures. The NOAEC was determined to be 0.15 mg/m³.

In the intermediate exposure (4-week) study, male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (5

rats/sex/group) were exposed *via* dynamic nose-only inhalation to concentrations of 0, 0.08, 0.5, and 1.5 mg/m³ DDAC (MMAD 1.4, 1.5, and 1.9 μm, GSD 1.83, 1.86, and 1.87, density not reported) for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14732</RecNum>< DisplayText>[10]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14732</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596018482">14732</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></authors></contributors><title>S
ubchronic Inhalation Toxicity Study of DDAC - Revised</title><secondary-title>Office of
Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington,

D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>25</pages><volume>HQ-OPP-2006-0338-0045</volume><dates></ear>>2016<//ear></dates></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>] . Body weights were significantly reduced in the high exposure group (males only) on days 14, 21, and 25. Lung weights were increased in females in the mid- and high-concentration groups and in males in the high concentration group. BALF analysis indicated that, at the high concentration, neutrophils and eosinophils increased with a concomitant decrease in macrophages. Histopathological findings in the nasal cavity were graded according to severity from minimal to severe and increased mucus of the respiratory epithelium in males and females was minimal to moderate at all exposures and mild to moderate ulceration of the nasal cavity in males and females in the high concentration group only. In males, there was an increase in cell count and total protein across all exposures. In females, there was an increase in LDH across all concentrations, but the small sample size precluded establishing statistical significance for the effects. A conservative LOAEC of 0.08 mg/m³ was previously identified by the Agency based on increased mucus of the respiratory epithelium and increased LDH; however, due to the mild effects and low number of animals/group, the effects were not statistically significant [ADDIN **EN.CITE** <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14732</RecNum><

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14732</RecNum>

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In the 13-week sub-chronic study, male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (10/group/sex) were exposed in whole-body exposure chambers for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Kim</Author><Year>2017</Year><RecNum>14736</RecNum>

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Res</full-title><abbr-1>Toxicological research</abbr-1></alt-periodical><pages>7-14</pages><volume>33</volume><number>1</number><edition>2017/01/31</edition><keyw ords><keyword>Biocide</keyword>Didecyldimethylammonium chloride</keyword><keyword>Inhalation</keyword><keyword>Subchronic</keyword></keywords><dates><year>2017</year><pubdates><date>Jan</date></pub-dates></dates><isbn>1976-8257 (Print)1976-8257</isbn><accession-num>28133508</accessionnum><urls></urls><custom2>PMC5266374</custom2><electronic-resourcenum>10.5487/tr.2017.33.1.007</electronic-resource-num><remote-databaseprovider>NLM</remote-databaseprovider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The MMAD of the DDAC aerosol was 0.63 μm, 0.81 μm, and 1.65 μm, and the geometric standard deviations were 1.62, 1.65, and 1.65 in the low $(0.11 \pm 0.06 \text{ mg/m}^3)$, the middle $(0.36 \pm 0.20 \text{ mg/m}^3)$ and the high (1.41 mg/m^3) $\pm 0.71 \text{ mg/m}^3$) exposure groups, respectively. Body weight influenced by exposure to DDAC with the mean body weight approximately 35% lower in the high exposure $(1.41 \pm 0.71 \text{ mg/m}^3)$ male group and 15% lower in the high exposure $(1.41 \pm 0.71 \text{ mg/m}^3)$ female group compared to that of the control group. Albumin and LDH were unaffected in the BALF. Lung weight was increased in females in the mid- and high-concentration groups and in males in the high concentration group only, while inflammatory cell infiltration and interstitial pneumonia was observed in both the mid- and high-concentration groups. Tidal volume and minute volume were not significantly affected at any concentration. Severe histopathological symptoms such as

proteinosis and/or fibrosis, were not reported. A NOAEC of 0.11 mg/m³ was identified based on

the increased lung weights in females and increase in inflammatory cells.

BAC was evaluated in a 2-week whole-body inhalation study in male and female Fischer rats (5/group/sex) to concentrations of 0.8, 4 and 20 mg/m³ for 6 hours/day, 7 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Mean concentration of BAC in the whole-body exposure chambers of the T1 (0.8 mg/m³), T2 (4 mg/m³) and T3 (20 mg/m³) groups during the exposure period was 0.84 ± 0.09 , 4.01 ± 0.12 , and 19.57 ± 0.97 mg/m³, respectively; the MMAD of the aerosols was 1.614, 1.090, and 1.215 µm, respectively, and the GSD was 2.00, 1.86, and 1.51, respectively. The MMAD and GSD were confirmed to be within the range recommended by the OECD (2018) [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14819</RecNum><DisplayText
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Cooperation and Development</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Environment
Directorate, Joint Meeting of the Chemicals Committee and The Working Party on Chemicals, Pesticides
and Biotechnology, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</fulltitle></periodical><pages>106,

 $https://www.oecd.org/official documents/public display document pdf/?cote=env/jm/mono(2009)28/rev \\ 1\& amp; doclanguage=en</pages>< volume>ENV/JM/MONO(2009)28/REV1</ volume>< dates>< year> 201 \\ 8</ year></ dates>< urls></ urls></ record></ Cite></ End Note>]. Among the general signs observed$

during the exposure period, soiled perineal region, rales, and discharge were continuously observed during the 2-week recovery period. Rales and deep respiration were observed in the high concentration. Exposure-related effects in the upper airway included nasal discharge at the low and mid concentrations, and ulceration with suppurative inflammation, squamous metaplasia, and erosion with necrosis were observed in the respiratory epithelium and

transitional epithelium of the male and female high concentrations.

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In the lower airways, degeneration and regeneration of terminal bronchiolar epithelium, smooth muscle hypertrophy of bronchioloalveolar junction, and cell debris in the alveolar lumens were observed in the mid and high concentration male groups and high concentration dose female group. Hypertrophy and hyperplasia of mucous cells in the bronchi or bronchioles were observed in both males and females. Effects indicating tissue injury included squamous metaplasia of the respiratory epithelium and transitional epithelium, mucinous cell hypertrophy and proliferation of the respiratory epithelium, mucinous cell metaplasia of the transitional epithelium in the nasal cavities, and mucinous cell hypertrophy and proliferation of terminal bronchiole. In the BALF analysis, the concentration of reactive oxygen species (ROS)/reactive nitrogen species (RNS), IL-1β, IL-6, and macrophage inflammatory protein (MIP)-2 decreased concentrationdependently at the end of the exposure period, which indicated oxidative damage, but did not show a concentration-dependent change at 4 weeks of recovery. The concentrations of TNF-α, IL-4, and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β did not show changes associated with test substance exposure. Relative lung weights were statistically significantly increased in males at the mid and high doses and in females at the high doses only. The study authors identified a LOAEC of 0.8 mg/m³ based on effects in the nasal cavity.

Mechanistic studies

In vitro assays have demonstrated that cytotoxic effects of cationic surfactants have significantly greater toxicity to non-polarized than polarized mammalian cells [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. In this study, cell viability as measured by LDH and MTT assays in non-polarized HeLa immortal cell line cells and fetal skin dendritic cells (FSDC) was more sensitive to the effects of different cationic surfactants of varying alkyl chain length and polar head groups than polarized cell lines Madin-Darby Canine Kidney (MDCK) and Caco-2. The cationic surfactant toxicity was shown to occur well below their CMC, and greater toxicity was observed with alkyl lengths of 10-12 than 14-16; however, this association was not strictly a linear relationship. In addition, the cationic surfactants with a larger polar head group (i.e., benzalkonium) were 2-5 times more toxic than cationic surfactants with a more localized charge (i.e., trimethylammonium).

The effects of BAC on cell viability, inflammatory response, and oxidative stress of human alveolar epithelial cells has been replicated *in vitro* using a dynamic culture condition that reflects the natural microenvironment of the lung to simulate the contraction and expansion of breathing [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. Normal breathing levels were simulated (tidal volume 10%, 0.2Hz) through surface elongation of an elastic membrane in a dynamic culture system. This type of dynamic system provided easy control of exposure rate during the cell culture. The system assessed toxicity by culturing submerged cells with different BAC concentrations (0, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 40 μ g/mL) under static and dynamic culture conditions. Following a 24-hr exposure to BAC, cellular metabolic activity, IL-8, and ROS levels were

significantly affected, compared to untreated cells, when using either static or dynamic cell growth conditions. The dynamic culture system, which more closely mimics lung conditions, showed a higher toxic response to BAC as indicated by increased ROS levels.

Dose-Response Analysis: Quantitative Points of Departure (PODs)

The animal inhalation toxicity data identified by the literature search and PODs from the studies are summarized in [REF_Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT]. It should be emphasized that new information (e.g., study data, POD derivation approaches, mechanistic information, etc.) may lead to updates/additions to this table. All of the identified data are from animal studies and therefore need to be extrapolated to estimate the human equivalent inhalation exposure [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>1994</Year><RecNum>14746</RecNum>

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https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

/documents/rfc_methodology.pdf <volume>EPA/600/8-</volume>	
//066F <dates><year>1994</year></dates> <urls><th></th></urls>	
]. The exposure duration adjustment and DAF approaches were described above. The Formatted: Highlight	
mmary of RDDR inputs (e.g., MMAD and GSD) and results are provided in [REF	
tef46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT [for each of the toxicity studies from which PODs Formatted: Highlight	

could be identified. However, other approaches to dosimetry adjustment may be considered

relevant (e.g., use of the multiple-path particle dosimetry model [MPPD]).

For the nonionic surfactant, octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol, the effects observed (increased lung weights, alveolar/bronchiolar epithelial hyperplasia and lung inflammation) are consistent with effects in the thoracic region; therefore, the RDDR of 0.812 was used to calculate the HEC.

For the anionic surfactant, oleoylsarcosine, the effects were seen in multiple regions of the respiratory tract, including squamous metaplasia and epithelium proliferation and submucous acute inflammation at the base of the epiglottis and early stages of fibrosis in the alveoli walls.

Therefore, the extrathoracic RDDR (0.0.111) was used to calculate the HEC. In the 28-day inhalation study with DDAC, effects were observed throughout the respiratory tract, including the nasal cavity; therefore, the thoracic RDDR (0.854) was used for calculating the HEC.

Similarly, for the cationic surfactant, BAC histopathological cellular changes were observed in the nasal cavity and lungs, indicating the extrathoracic RDDR (0.106) should be used to calculate the HEC. The RDDRs applied and HECs derived from the animal study PODs are provided in [

REF_Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT].

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Table [SEQ Table * ARABIC]. Inhalation Toxicity Points of Departure and Human Equivalent Concentrations (HEC) for Surfactants.

							RDDR	Model		
Surfacta nt Type	Chemical Substance	Inhalation Exposure Duration/T ype	Study POD	Value (mg/m³	Referen ce	Density (g/cm³) at 20 °C¹		put neters GSD	RDDR ²	HEC (mg/m³)
Nonioni c	octylpheno xypolyetho xyethanol (CASRN 9002-93-1)	14-day, 6 hr/d, 5 d/wk; whole body	LOAE C	5.3	[ADDIN EN.CIT E <endn ote=""><c ite=""> MDEQ <ye ar="">200 3<rec num="">1 4731<!--/-->RecNu m><di splayte="" xt="">[8]<!--/Displa yText--> <record><rec- number<="" td=""><td>0.998 water vehicle</td><td>1.80</td><td>1.80</td><td>RDDR_{ET} = 0.196 RDDR_{TB} = 1.367 RDDR_{PU} = 0.564 RDDR_{TH} = 0.812 RDDR_{TOT} = 1.547</td><td>1.0 7.2 3.0 4.4 8.2</td></rec-></record></di></rec></ye></c></endn>	0.998 water vehicle	1.80	1.80	RDDR _{ET} = 0.196 RDDR _{TB} = 1.367 RDDR _{PU} = 0.564 RDDR _{TH} = 0.812 RDDR _{TOT} = 1.547	1.0 7.2 3.0 4.4 8.2

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Anionic	oleoyl sarcosine (CASRN 110-25-8)	28-day, 6 hr/d, 5 d/wk; nose-only (OECD TG 412)	LOAE C	< 6	<endn ote><c ite><a uthor> Dossier or><ye ar>202 0r><rec Num>1 4784<!--<br-->RecNu m><di< td=""><td>0.7893 ethanol vehicle</td><td>1.16</td><td>2.12</td><td>RDDR_{ET} = 0.111 RDDR_{TB} = 2.008 RDDR_{PU} = 0.447 RDDR_{TH} = 0.742 RDDR_{TOT} = 0.970</td><td>< 0.6 < 12.0 < 2.7 < 4.5 < 5.8</td></di<></rec </ye </a </c </endn 	0.7893 ethanol vehicle	1.16	2.12	RDDR _{ET} = 0.111 RDDR _{TB} = 2.008 RDDR _{PU} = 0.447 RDDR _{TH} = 0.742 RDDR _{TOT} = 0.970	< 0.6 < 12.0 < 2.7 < 4.5 < 5.8

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BAC	14-day, 6 hr/d, 7 d/wk; whole body	LOAE C (nasal effects)	0.8	[ADDIN EN.CIT E ADDIN EN.CIT E.DAT A]	0.998 water vehicle 2% dose solution	1.31	1.79	$RDDR_{ET} = 0.106$ $RDDR_{TB} = 1.988$ $RDDR_{PU} = 0.528$ $RDDR_{TH} = 0.815$ $RDDR_{TOT} = 0.991$	0.08 1.59 0.42 0.65 0.79

MMAD: Mass Median Aerodynamic Diameter of inhalation study aerosol, average values listed; GSD: Geometric Standard Deviation of the inhalation study aerosol, average values listed; RDDR: Regional Deposited Dose Ration; ET: Extrathoracic; TB: Tracheobronchial; PU: Pulmonary; TH: Thoracic = TB + PU; TOT = ET + TB + PU.

¹Exact density of administered compounds not reported (NR); vehicle density was listed when provided.

²RDDR values are for male and female animals, whichever was lower, as calculated using RDDR exe and described in the Supporting Information file at "Section 2 RDDR Modeling".

³conservative estimate: effects were not statistically significant.

NA: Data not available or RDDR values could not be calculated from the available information.

Benchmark Margin of Exposure Analysis

human toxicokinetic differences.

The substances shown in [REF _Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT] provide representative examples of PODs that may be applied to new chemistries that meet the Surfactant Criteria, after evaluating whether the chemical substances in [REF Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT] are appropriate toxicological analogues for read-across to the new chemical substance. Alternatively, the notifier may propose a different representative POD and/or analogue, if supported by scientific evidence. If a determination cannot be made on whether one of these chemical substances ([REF _Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT] or other representative analogue) is an appropriate toxicological analogue, then the relevant substance from [REF Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT] should be identified as a comparator substance⁴ for use in the Tiered-Testing Strategy, discussed below. Though the initial starting point for deriving a benchmark MOE is based on a composite of the default values of 10 for each of the individual values for UF_H, UF_A, and UF_L, refinements may be warranted based on dosimetric adjustments to the applied concentrations used for establishing the experimental PODs or consideration of the representativeness and comprehensiveness of the available database to characterize potential effects after inhalation exposure. As shown in [REF Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT], the uncertainty factors were based on RDDRs that were used as DAFs to account for animal-to-

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⁴ A comparator substance is one that may possess similar properties to the new chemical substance and for which inhalation toxicity data are available. EPA may "read-across" the toxicity data from the comparator substance to the new chemical substance when no other information is available. The tiered-testing approach for this category is designed to determine whether this practice may be refined or supported by additional data. As such, the comparator substance should be used in side-by-side testing in Tiers I-III with a new chemical substance to aid with interpreting the test results of the new chemical substance.

In the case of surface-active substances meeting the Surfactant Criteria, EPA has recently adopted a generalized approach that has historically been applied on a case-by-case basis for chemical substances, in recognition that surface-active effects that lead to irritation/corrosion do not require absorption, metabolism, distribution, or elimination (ADME) (See, e.g., EPA, 2020 [ADDIN EN.CITE

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Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-

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0051</volume><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]

). In the context of this publication, irritation/corrosion include those effects in the respiratory tract that lead to inflammation, hyperplasia, and metaplasia. For chemical substances that act *via* a direct-acting adverse outcome pathway (AOP) mode of action (MOA) such as the one

regarding surfactant that is under development [ADDIN EN.CITE

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B.</author></authors></contributors><tittle>Lung Surfactant Function Disruption
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- 1. A description of the MOAAOP,
- A discussion of why the MOAAOP is unlikely to differ between humans, in the case of UFH, or between animals in comparison to humans, in the case of UFA, and
- A discussion as to why the ADME of the chemical substance is addressed by the use of dosimetry modeling.

When the above criteria are met, application of the appropriate DAF (*e.g.*, the <u>RDDR</u> for particles) should still be applied, given that deposition is the most appropriate dose metric for

assessing acute/subacute effects from surface-active agents. However, since the DAF accounts for the toxicokinetic component of UF_A, the remaining value of 3 (*i.e.*, 10^{0.5} or 3.16) should be retained for the toxicodynamics component of the UF_A.

Based on these information and criteria, the following composite values are appropriate to describe intra- and interspecies variability (i.e., $UF_H \times UF_A$):

UF_H = 10 or 3: The default value of 10 should be applied when the available information does not support each of the above criteria. If the available information supports all three of the above criteria, then a value of 3 may be applied, which reflects. The reduced value represents a reduction in the TK component of this UF to 1 and application of a value of 3 for the _-with the remaining value of 3 accounting for the TD component.

UF_A = 10 or 3: The default value of 10 should be applied when the available information does not support the application of dosimetric adjustments for quantifying deriving aan-HEC or when the available information does not support each of the above three criteria. If the available information allows derivation of an HEC and/or application of the above criteria, then a value of 3 may be applied, which reflects presents a reduction in the TK component to 1 and application of a value of 3 for the TD component.

 $UF_L = 10$ or 1: If the POD from the experimental study is based on a LOAEC, then a default value of 10 should be applied, unless there is information to support that a reduced value is warranted. If the experimental data are amenable to benchmark dose modeling, a BMCL with an

appropriate biologically significant benchmark response (e.g., 10% extra risk for quantal data or 1 standard deviation for continuous data) should be calculated and a value of 1 should be assigned to this applied for this area of uncertainty factor.

The above considerations and approaches support the application of a benchmark MOE ranging from 10 (*i.e.*, $10^{0.5} \times 10^{0.5} \approx 10$) to 1,000 depending on the chemical substance identified as an appropriate toxicological analogue and available data on the new chemical substance. In those instances where the data are too limited to determine whether n-one of the chemical substances in Table 3 is appropriate for extrapolating the hazards to the new chemical substance, experimental testing should be performed to aid with informing the quantitative assessment, as discussed under the Tiered-Testing Strategy.

Uncertainties and Limitations

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The assessment framework outlined includes a number of uncertainties and limitations, including those associated with extrapolating the hazards identified from the chemical substances shown in [REF_Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT]. Uncertainties associated with using animals to estimate human toxicity are recognized and methods are presented to reduce extrapolation uncertainties [ADDIN EN.CITE

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Committee and The Working Party on Chemicals, Pesticides and Biotechnology, Organization

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</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]. Procedures for the adjustment of exposure durations for inhalation exposures and application of DAFs to derive HECs are well-established procedures for reducing uncertainties associated with the TK aspects of animal-to-human extrapolation factors and derivation of benchmark MOEs (i.e., type and magnitude of uncertainty factors) [ADDIN EN.CITE

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Review of the Reference Dose and Reference Concentration Processes</title><secondarytitle>Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C.

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title></periodical><pages>192, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

12/documents/rfd-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/630/P-

02/002F</volume><dates></gray>2002</gray></dates><urls></record></Cite><

Author>EPA</Author><Year>1994</Year><RecNum>14746</RecNum><record><rec-

number>14746</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-

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keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></authors></contributors><title>

Methods for Derivation of Inhalation Reference Concentrations and Application of Inhalation

Dosimetry</title><secondary-title>Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental

Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC</secondary-title></title>

title>Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research

Triangle Park, NC</full-title></periodical><pages>389,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

11/documents/rfc methodology.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/600/8-

 $90/066F < \volume > \dates > \year > 1994 < \year > \dates > \urls > \year > \dates > \date$

e>]. Likewise, EPA has-recommends_ed-that BMD modeling be employed whenever possible to

identify a POD and to reduce uncertainties associated with using a LOAEL from a toxicity study.

Given the small number of chemical substances that meet the Surfactant Criteria that have concentration-response inhalation toxicity data, the applicability of the chemical substances in

REF Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT | to new chemical substances needs to be carefully considered, with attention given to the influence of additional functional groups on the toxicity of the new chemical substance, as well as the particle properties (MMAD, GSD, and density) of the candidate new chemical substance. Simulation studies using dosimetry models such as the RDDR or multiple-path particle dosimetry (MPPD) models can inform these considerations. Additionally, the risk assessors should consider if a different comparator substance and/or POD may be more appropriate (e.g., based on new scientific information of the new chemical substance profile). Risk assessors should consider the surface tension and CMC criteria ([REF _Ref47613375 \h * MERGEFORMAT]) compared to these measurements for the new chemical substance and the influence of the presence or absence of additional functional groups on these criteria (e.g., would a particular functional group increase or decrease toxicity, for example by another mechanism of action). If such structural differences are judged not to significantly influence properties and toxicity, such that the new chemical substance is expected to have comparable or lower toxicity, the hazard(s) and risk(s) should be characterized using the chemical substance as a toxicological analogue to the new chemical substance. Of course, uncertainties regarding this extrapolation should be acknowledged in the risk characterization.

For instances where the notifier of the new chemical substance and/or EPA is unable to conclude that a chemical substances ([REF_Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT]) or other relevant analogue) is comparable to or represents an acceptable toxicological analogue to the new chemical substance, then the Tiered-Testing Strategy provided could be used to determine whether the new chemical substance has lower, comparable, or higher toxicity to the relevant chemical substance in [REF_Ref46931035 \h * MERGEFORMAT], as a comparator

substance and not as a toxicological analogue. Prior to conducting such testing, the scientific basis for selecting the comparator substance to the new chemical substance should be understood and a rationale provided as to why the comparator substance will be used for testing.

Use of New Approach Methods (NAMs) and In Vitro Testing Strategies to Reduce or

Replace Vertebrate Testing

The amended TSCA requires EPA to reduce reliance on animal testing using methods and strategies that "provide information of equivalent or better scientific quality and relevance for assessing risks of injury to health or the environment" [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>U.S.C.</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14796</RecNum>

<DisplayText>[85]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14796</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596041048">14796</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><aut

for submission to EPA to first "... attempt to develop the information by means of an alternative

test method or strategy ... before conducting new vertebrate testing..." [ADDIN EN.CITE

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my, William, Jane

Reviewer #1 wanted even more explanation of test methods, so not shortening this section much

<EndNote><Cite><Author>U.S.C.</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14796</RecNum> <DisplayText>[85]/DisplayText><record><rec-number>14796</rec-number><foreign-</pre> keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596041048">14796</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>U.S.C.</author></authors></contributors><title>><title> Title 15-Commerce and Trade, Chapter 53-Toxic Substances Control, Subchapter I-Control of Toxic Substances</title><secondary-title>United States Code (U.S.C.)</secondarytitle></titles><periodical><full-title>United States Code (U.S.C.)</fulltitle></periodical><pages>https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?path=/prelim@title15/chapter53 &edition=prelim</pages><dates><year>2016</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cit e></EndNote>]. Additionally, in 2019, EPA was directed to prioritize efforts to use NAMs to reduce animal testing [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Wheeler</Author><Year>2019</Year><RecNum>14797</RecNu m><DisplayText>[86]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14797</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596041176">14797</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author> Wheeler, A.R.</author></authors></contributors><title>Directive to Prioritize Effects to Reduce Animal Testing</title><secondary-title>United States Environmental Protection Agency</secondary-title></titles><periodical><full-title>United States Environmental Protection Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>3,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2019-09/documents/image2019-09-09-

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14829</RecNum></br>

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keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"

timestamp="1596098792">14829</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal

Article">17</ref-</td>

type><contributors><authors><author>EPA</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>S chedule a Pre-Submission Meeting, Reviewing New Chemicals under the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA)</title><secondary-title>Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title></title>

Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-

title></periodical><pages>https://www.epa.gov/reviewing-new-chemicals-under-toxic-

substances-control-act-tsca/forms/program-contacts-and</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

In the interest of reducing or replacing vertebrate testing and designing a scientifically robust testing approach, when a surfactant is determined to be respirable, EPA encourages evaluating its potential to cause respiratory tract toxicity using an AOP approach. The OECD provides "An AOP is an analytical construct that describes a sequential chain of causally linked events at different levels of biological organization that lead to an adverse health or ecotoxicological effect" and that "AOPs are the central element of a toxicological knowledge framework being built to support chemical risk assessment based on mechanistic reasoning" [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14798</RecNum><DisplayText>[88]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14798</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596041285">14798</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>OECD</author></authors></contributors><titles><title</td>

>Adverse Outcome Pathways, Molecular Screening and Toxicogenomics</title><secondary-title>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)</secondary-title></title>condical><full-title>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
(OECD)</full-title>
/periodical><pages>http://www.oecd.org/env/ehs/testing/adverse-outcome-pathways-molecular-screening-and-

toxicogenomics.htm</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite

></EndNote>]. AOPs in various stages of development are useful for different purposes and an AOP may be useful even if it has not been formally evaluated by the OECD.

An AOP can be used to help design a testing strategy and to identify NAMs that can query the key events leading up to the adverse outcome. As an example, using the respiratory contact irritant chlorothalonil (2,4,5,6-tetrachloroisophthalonitrile; CASRN 1897-45-6), Syngenta Crop Protection applied a NAM for the assessment of inhalation toxicology based on an AOP approach [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. The approach involved derivation of the POD from an *in vitro* assay and the integration of the *in vitro* POD for calculation of HECs for the inhalation risk assessment. Similar approaches can be used for surfactants where *in vitro/ex vivo* systems may be used to investigate specific key events in an AOP and confirm that a new chemical substance fits within the boundaries of the Surfactant Category, and therefore, may act like a surfactant (group assignment *via* similar AOP) and/or if other substance-specific properties lead to a predominant type of key event within the AOP. Further, *in vitro* tests may deliver information while avoiding *in vivo* testing or, if considered, provide helpful information on dose-selection for *in vivo* testing.

An AOP connects a molecular initiating event (MIE) to key events, at the cellular, tissue, and organ levels, which lead to an adverse outcome at the organism or population level [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. For surfactants, proposed MIEs include interaction of the substance with the epithelial lining fluid or lung-surfactant, or the molecular interaction of the substance itself with cell membranes of the epithelium in the respiratory tract. The resulting key events include disruption of airway epithelial cells (AEC) due to loss of lung cell surfactant

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function and/or the loss of membrane integrity (cellular level key events). These cellular events may lead to different tissue or organ level events (e.g., cytotoxicity and perturbation of AEC, increased alveolar surface tension and alveolar collapse, loss of barrier function, blood extravasation, and impaired oxygenation of blood), which may finally lead to organism consequences (i.e., the adverse outcome) (e.g., pneumonia, limited lung function by chronic obstruction (COPD), interstitial fibrosis, etc.).

Some *in vitro* tests, such as by capillary surfactometer, may be useful in screening chemicals to be tested for the Surfactant Category, but do not by themselves constitute adequate tests for acute respiratory tract effects of these chemicals. This information should be taken into consideration within an integrated approach. These assays can be used as part of a weight of evidence evaluation to determine whether to consider animal testing or if a POD can be determined for risk assessment purposes without the use of animals. Each test can provide insight on one key event of the AOP, which collectively, may provide a comprehensive picture of the likelihood of toxicity.

A number of different types of *in vitro* test methods, summarized in [REF_Ref46931271 \h *

MERGEFORMAT], may be used to query key events in AOPs relevant to the disruption of lung function by surfactants [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Sorli</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14800</RecNum><
 DisplayText>[83]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14800</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"

timestamp="1596041625">14800</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal"

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Sorli, J.

B.</author></authors></contributors><title>>Lung Surfactant Function Disruption
Leading to Acute Inhalation Toxicity</title><secondary-title>AOPWiki</secondarytitle></title>><periodical><full-title>AOPWiki</full-

title></periodical><pages>https://aopwiki.org/aops/302</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]. Clippinger *et al.* (2018) [ADDIN EN.CITE

ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] have also described a decision tree and potential key events that

can be used to design pathway-based approaches for *in vitro* testing of inhalation exposures.

Table [SEQ	Table * ARABI	[C]. Potential	ethods for Evaluating	g Chemicals in the Surfactant Category.	Commented [A33]: Need to add the 'Tiers' in the Scheme to
Level of Biological Organization	Key Events	In Vitro Assay	est System		
	Interaction with pulmonary surfactant	In Vitro Respiratory Toxicity Assays	In vitro lung surfact	tant interaction, e.g., as described by Sorli et al. (2018) [ADDIN]	EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]
Molecular Initiating Events (MIEs)	Interaction with cell membrane and cell membrane components and interaction	Hemoglobin Denaturation Assay, Liposome Assay, and In Vitro/Ex Vivo Irritation Assays	<endnote><cite> id="sp9w2fxejsw0z H. /author><author< p=""> address><titles><tit< p=""> published in associa periodical><full-title< p=""> 20 /pages><volume< p=""> num>20692908 /ac provider><language< p=""> Liposome assay, e.g number>14834 /rec type><contributors> Florida 32611, USA science /science Diseases/chemically Ophthalmological Measurements /key dates><date>Jun /dprovider>NLM /rer In vitro/ex vivo eye: <endnote><cite> id="sp9w2fxejsw0z"</cite></endnote></date></contributors></language<></volume<></full-title<></tit<></titles></author<></cite></endnote>	rration assay, e.g., as described by Hayashi et al. (1994) [ADDIN Author>Hayashi Author>Hayashi Author>Second Second Second	8 <displaytext>[95]</displaytext> <record><rec-mu></rec-mu><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><auth-address>Shiseido to test systems for predicting eye irritancy<secondary-title an="" association="" bibra<="" ciation="" cology="" full-title="" in="" international="" journal="" published="" vitro:="" with=""><abbr-1>Toxicol In Vitro</abbr-1>Toxicol In VitroToxicol In Vitro **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors** **Contributors* **Contributors</secondary-title></auth-address></record>

			irritation or serious eye damage <secondary-title>OECD Guidelines for the Testing of Chemicals /title></secondary-title>
Level Events	Loss of membrane integrity/general cytotoxicity	In Vitro/Ex Vivo Cytotoxicity Assays	• In vitro/ex vivo eye irritation tests for cytotoxicity, e.g., Reconstructed human Comea-like Epithelium (RhCE) (OECD TG 492) [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><author>OECD</author><year>2019</year><recnum>14803</recnum>DisplayText>[97]<pre>crord></pre><pre>rec-numl id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596043912">14803DisplayText>[97]</pre><pre>DisplayText><pre>ref-type name="Journal Article">172</pre><pre>/ref-type>contributors><author>OECD</author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author></pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author</pre><pre>/author<!--</td--></pre></pre></cite></endnote>

			• Cell membrane integrity test (LDH-cytotoxicity assay), cell viability assays (e.g., MTT, resazurin [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA], a membrane integrity test.
			BALB/c3T3/A549 lung cells neutral red uptake (NRU) cytotoxicity test, a test for basal cytotoxicity (ICCVAM, 2006) [ADDIN EN.CITE
Tissue or Organ Level Events (OLEs)	Tissue level events	Human organotypic Airway Cultures	• 3D constructs of human-derived cell cultures of differentiated airway epithelial cells (e.g., EpiAirway [™] , MucilAir [™] , SmallAir [™] , EpiAlveolar [™] , etc.) u [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]
	Tissue level events	Specific Ex Vivo Respiratory Toxicity Assays	• Precision-cut lung slice test, e.g., as described by Hess et al. (2016) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] and Neuhaus et al. (2017, 2018

MIEs

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There may be multiple AOPMOAs that would be relevant to the Surfactant Category. The MIE

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for a proposed MOA AOP under development is the interaction of a substance with lung surfactant, which may lower the surface tension and disrupt lung surfactant function [ADDIN

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Sorli</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14800</RecNum>

DisplayText>[83]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14800</rec-number><foreign-</td>

keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"</td>

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B.</author></authors></contributors></title>Lung Surfactant Function Disruption

Leading to Acute Inhalation Toxicity</title><secondary-title>AOPWiki</secondarytitle></title>><periodical><full-title>AOPWiki</fulltitle></periodical><pages>https://aopwiki.org/aops/302</pages><dates><year>2020</pages></dates>

Article">17</ref-type><contributors><authors><author>Sorli, J.

ates><urls></urls></record></EndNote>]. Sorli et al. (2017) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] developed an in vitro lung surfactant interaction assay that specifically measures whether a substance alters the surface tension of pulmonary surfactant. The assay was initially developed for predicting the effect of waterproofing agents that were shown to be acutely toxic to mice. The authors noted that it may be overly conservative for some substances. Nevertheless, this assay investigated a basic principle that may be relevant for some types of surfactants.

pulmonary cell membranes, which may be followed by cytotoxicity. While the hemoglobin denaturation and liposome assays and in vitro eye irritation assays do not directly measure effects on membranes of AEC, these assays have been shown to be useful screening approaches for determining the ability of surfactants to interact with cellular membrane components and cell membrane penetration. For example, Hayashi et al. (1995) [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Hayashi</Author><Year>1995</Year><RecNum>14833</RecNum ><DisplayText>[105]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14833</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596539110">14833</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Hayashi, T.</author><author>Itagaki, H.</author><author>Fukuda, T.</author><author>Tamura, U.</author><author>Sato, Y.</author><author>Suzuki, Y.</author></authors></contributors><auth-address>Shiseido Research Center, Yokohama, Japan. < title >< title Hemoglobin denaturation caused by surfactants</title><secondary-title>Biol Pharm Bull</secondary-title><alttitle>Biological & pharmaceutical bulletin</alt-title></title></title></alt-periodical><fulltitle>Biological & Diameter amp; Pharmaceutical Bulletin</br/>full-title><abbr-1>Biol. Pharm. Bull.</abbr-1>Biol. Pharm. Bull. 1></alt-periodical><pages>540-3</pages><volume>18</volume><number>4</number><edition>1995/04/01</edition><keywo rds><keyword>Chromatography, High Pressure Liquid</keyword><keyword>Circular Dichroism</keyword><keyword>Hemoglobins/*chemistry</keyword><keyword>Irritants/phar macology</keyword><keyword>Protein Denaturation/drug

effects</keyword><keyword>Sodium Dodecyl

Sulfate/pharmacology</keyword>Spectrophotometry</keyword>Keyword>Structur e-Activity Relationship</keyword><keyword>Surface-Active Agents/*pharmacology</keyword><keyword>Taurine/analogs & Damp; derivatives/pharmacology</keyword></keywords><dates><year>1995</year><pubdates><date>Apr</date></pub-dates></dates><isbn>0918-6158 (Print)0918-6158</isbn><accession-num>7655423</accession-num><urls></urls><electronic-resourcenum>10.1248/bpb.18.540</electronic-resource-num><remote-databaseprovider>NLM</remote-databaseprovider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>] showed that charged surfactant molecules can interfere with charged side chains of the hemoglobin protein. These interactions led to disruption of the three-dimensional (3D) structure of hemoglobin, causing a change in light absorbance that can be measured. Increasing concentrations of SDS and sodium lauroylmethyltaurate (LMT; CASRN 4337-75-1) were tested in this assay and showed concentration dependent increases in hemoglobin denaturation, which correlated with irritation effects in the Draize eye test [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. The liposome assay can be used to assess disruption of the lipid bilayer of the membrane from interaction with surfactant chemistries. Kapoor et al. (2009) [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Kapoor</Author><Year>2009</Year><RecNum>14834</RecNum ><DisplayText>[96]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14834</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596539300">14834</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Kapoor, Y.</author><author>Howell, B. A.</author><author>Chauhan, A.</author></authors></contributors><auth-

address>Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32611, USA.</auth-address><title><title>Liposome assay for evaluating ocular toxicity of surfactants</title><secondary-title>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</secondary-title><alt-title>Investigative ophthalmology & amp; visual science</alt-title></title><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1>Vis Ciperiodical><alt-periodical><full-title>Investigative ophthalmology & amp; visual science</full-title>Investigative ophthalmology & amp; visual science</full-title><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1></alt-periodical><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1></alt-periodical><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1></alt-periodical><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1></alt-periodical><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci</abbr-1><abbr-1>Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci

35</pages><volume>50</volume><number>6</number><edition>2009/01/27</edition><keywords><keyword>Conjunctival Diseases/chemically induced</keyword><keyword>Corneal Diseases/chemically induced</keyword><keyword>*Diagnostic Techniques,
Ophthalmological</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Fluoresceins/*metabolism</keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><keyword><k

Dyes/*metabolism</keyword><keyword>Humans</keyword><keyword>*Liposomes</keyword><keyword>Luminescent Measurements</keyword><keyword>Models,

escent

Theoretical</keyword><keyword>Permeability/drug effects</keyword><keyword>SurfaceActive Agents/*toxicity</keyword></keywords><dates><year>2009</year><published ates><dates>Jun</date></published ates></dates><isbn>0146-0404</isbn><accessionnum>19168898</accession-num><urls></urls><electronic-resource-num>10.1167/iovs.082980</electronic-resource-num><remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-databaseprovider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>] measured the release of
calcein dye from liposomes following exposure to various surfactants and showed a positive
correlation with these findings and data from the Draize eye test. The hemoglobin denaturation

and liposomal assays were both optimized and validated against eye irritation data; therefore, these assays may provide an opportunity to evaluate the effects of surfactants on the respiratory tract. Further *in vitro* testing of known surfactants with existing data alongside new chemical substances will help benchmark the results. Nonetheless, these assays are useful for understanding the potential toxicity of a new surfactant substance to AEC or pulmonary cell membranes.

The use of ex vivo eye irritation studies may provide indirect measures of surfactants on cell membranes, which may be relevant to the effects observed from comparator substances in the respiratory tract. For example, Bader et al. (2013) [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Bader</Author><Year>2014</Year><RecNum>14807</RecNum> <DisplayText>[107]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14807</rec-number><foreign-</p> keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596044694">14807</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Bader, J.E.</author><author>Norman, K.G.</author><author>Raabe, H.</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Predicting Ocular Irritation of Surfactants Using the Bovine Corneal Opacity and Permeability Assay</title><secondary-title>Insitute for In Vitro Sciences, Inc., Gaithersburg, M.D.</secondary-title></title>>condary-title></title>>condary-title></title>>condary-title></title> Gaithersburg, M.D.</full-title></periodical><pages>https://iivs.org/wpcontent/uploads/2018/08/iivs poster predicting-ocular-irritation-of-surfactants-using-thebovine-corneal-opacity-and-permeabilityassay.pdf</pages><dates><year>2014</year></dates></urls></record></Cite></EndNot

e>] reported that the Bovine Corneal Opacity and Permeability (BCOP) assay was effective at demonstrating that nonionic (*i.e.*, octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol), anionic (*i.e.*, SDS), and cationic (*i.e.*, BAC) substances cause irritation to the eye; however, the authors also noted that the endpoints evaluated in this assay should be carefully assessed independently. The permeability score was more predictive of eye irritation than the ocular opacity score for octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol and SDS, whereas with BAC, the opacity score was more predictive of eye irritation than the permeability score. Therefore, a systematic investigation of opacity and permeability measures of surfactants tested in the BCOP may be helpful with elucidating toxicity to AEC or pulmonary cell membranes.

In addition, information on the potential of a substance to cause skin irritation (e.g., OECD TG 439 [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14808</RecNum>
<DisplayText>[108]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14808</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
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89D0DD65599260E7866D3</pages><volume>439</volume><dates><vear>2020</page></date s><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]) and/or skin corrosion (e.g., OECD TG 431 [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2019</Year><RecNum>14809</RecNum> <DisplayText>[109]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14809</rec-number><foreign-</p> keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596044976">14809</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>OECD</author></author></contributors><titles><title >In Vitro Skin Corrosion: Reconstructed Human Epidermis (RhE) Test Method</title><secondary-title>OECD Guidelines for the Testing of Chemicals</secondarytitle></titles><periodical><full-title>OECD Guidelines for the Testing of Chemicals</fulltitle></periodical><pages>29, https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/9789264264618en.pdf?expires=1596045820&id=id&accname=guest&checksum=E3EE55CBAA FAF0432EAD109F1B39ECF0</pages><volume>431</volume><dates><year>2019</year></d ates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]) in vitro, can provide supporting evidence of the potential for a substance to cause similar irritant or corrosive effects in respiratory tract cells. Corrosion effects mediated by pH extremes should be distinguished from necrosis effects via membrane disruption, demonstrated by DDAC that causes tissue effects in inhalation studies despite having a neutral pH value of 6.8-6.9 [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Sigma-Aldrich</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14810</RecNum><DisplayText>[110]</Disp

layText><record><rec-number>14810</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-

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https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/MSDS/MSDS/DisplayMSDSPage.do?country=US&languag e=en&productNumber=34466&brand=SIAL&PageToGoToURL=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.sigmaaldrich.com%2Fcatalog%2Fproduct%2Fsial%2F34466%3Flang%3Den</pages ><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

Cellular Level Effects

In vitro/ex vivo assays can be used to assess key events on the cellular level effects in AOPs relevant of chemicals in to the Surfactant Category (see Supplemental Table 1 in Clippinger et al., 2018 [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]). For general cytotoxicity ([REF | Ref46931271 \h * MERGEFORMAT]), cell lines are available that are known to be sensitive to the effects of surfactants. Use of the BALB/c 3T3 NRU cytotoxicity test to reduce animal testing by estimating starting doses for acute oral toxicity testing has been reviewed and recommended by the Interagency Coordinating Committee on the Validation of Alternative Methods (ICCVAM) and is an OECD guidance document [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. The surfactants with known inhalation toxicity (e.g., octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol, oleoyl sarcosine, DDAC, or BAC) should be tested in parallel with the new chemical substance to benchmark the results, thereby providing reliable results for estimating the potential for surfactants to cause irritation and cytotoxicity.

Tissue or Organ Level Effects

Based on the results of testing cellular level key events, it may be necessary to perform additional testing. Human and animal airway epithelia are composed of multiple cell types that each have specialized functions, making the use of 3D co-culture assays more physiologically relevant than 2D monoculture systems. Thus, several human organotypic airway models have been developed that allow for the assessment of multiple endpoints in 3D culture systems. Two commonly employed systems are EpiAirwayTM and MucilAirTM developed by MatTek Life Sciences and Epithelix, respectively.

Organotypic airway cultures, such as EpiAirwayTM and MucilAirTM, [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14811</RecNum>

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Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-

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Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>33,

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https://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/about ntp/sacatm/2019/september/bcgnd-1epa case study.pdf</pages><dates><year>2018</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite> </EndNote>], take on a pseudostratified morphology; develop tight junctions; differentiate into multiple cell types, including basal cells, ciliated cells, and goblet cells; generate mucus; exhibit ciliary beating; have xenobiotic metabolizing capacity; and maintain homeostasis for months in culture. Because of these characteristics, these human airway models are expected to better represent the response of in vivo tissue to surfactant exposure than cell line cultures of a single cell type. Dosimetry models such as the RDDR or MPPD can be used to predict the anatomical area and internal amounts delivered in various regions of the respiratory system for humans under the target inhalation exposure scenario for the given use case. Different 3D cell culture systems are available that are composed of the different cell types that occur at different anatomical sites in the respiratory tract. MucilAir™ provides a 3D co-culture model of cells from nasal, tracheal or bronchial sites, and SmallAirTM provides a co-culture model of cells from small airways. EpiAirwayTM is composed of a co-culture of normal human tracheal/bronchial epithelial cells, and EpiAlveolarTM is a 3D co-culture model of the air-blood barrier produced from primary human alveolar epithelial cells, pulmonary endothelial cells, and fibroblasts (available with and without macrophages).

Exposure of respiratory tract 3D co-culture models to aerosols at the air liquid interface (ALI) using an *in vitro* exposure system, such as those available from Vitrocell® Systems, provides an exposure more comparable to real-life scenarios for inhaled aerosols. The tradeoff has been a lower throughput compared to *in vitro* two-dimensional exposure systems; however, 3D tissue models and ALI exposure systems are now available in a 96-well format. Dilution in medium

and interaction with medium components does not occur in the ALI exposure systems as in submerged culture systems. The respiratory tract 3D co-culture models are more physiologically relevant because there is an interaction of the aerosol with a mucus or surfactant layer, as in humans.

Exposures of these organotypic cultures at the ALI can be combined with other assays for assessing cell function and viability in an AOP approach. Measurement of transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER), LDH-release, and viability assays (such as MTT, resazurin, or ATP assays), have all been reported for use with these cultures. Further, multiple assays can be performed on the same cultures. TEER measures epithelial integrity, including functionality of intercellular tight junctions. LDH-release measures loss of plasma membrane integrity, which is indicative of cytotoxicity, and MTT and ATP assays measure cell viability. MatTek Life Sciences recommends the MTT assay for use with their EpiAirwayTM cultures and recommends the surfactant octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol at 0.2% concentration as a positive control for cytotoxicity. These assays can also be used to determine an HEC, provided dosimetry models are available for translation of the internal dose achieved under culture conditions to an equivalent inhalation exposure for the human scenario of interest. Examples of in vitro dosimetry models to predict particle doses for submerged cell culture include the In vitro Sedimentation, Diffusion and Dosimetry model (ISDD) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] and the In vitro Sedimentation, Diffusion and Dissolution Dosimetry (ISD3) model [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA 1.

Significant progress has been made toward achieving the objectives to use high-throughput *in vitro* assays and computational models to evaluate potential adverse effects of chemical exposures [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>NRC</Author><Year>2007</Year><RecNum>14741</RecNum><

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https://doi.org/10.17226/11970</pages><volume>ISBNs: Ebook: 978-0-309-13412-5;

Paperback: 978-0-309-15173-

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Using 21st Century Science to Improve Risk-Related Evaluations, Washington, D.C., The

National Academies Press</title></title><pages>200,

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Precision-cut lung slices (PCLS) provide an additional method to develop key event data using ex vivo cultures of human or rodent lung slices. The PCLS can be used to measure multiple endpoints, such as LDH for cytotoxicity and IL-1α for pro-inflammatory cytokine release, to determine whether a chemical is likely to be toxic to the respiratory tract by inhalation exposure [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. PCLS contain intact alveoli, rather than monolayers of one or two cells types (co-cultures). Crucially, in contrast to organoids, cell types are present in the same ratios and with the same cell-cell and cell-matrix interactions as in vivo. PCLS are often used in toxicological and anatomical studies regarding contractility in relation to asthma and other respiratory illnesses, such as emphysema [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Sanderson</Author><Year>2011</Year><RecNum>14814</RecN um><DisplayText>[117]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14814</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596046031">14814</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>>Sanderson, M. J.</author></authors></contributors><auth-address>Department of Microbiology and Physiological Systems, University of Massachusetts Medical School, Worcester, MA 01655, USA. Michael.Sanderson@umassmed.edu</auth-address><title>Exploring lung

physiology in health and disease with lung slices</title><secondary-title>Pulm Pharmacol Ther</secondary-title><alt-title>Pulmonary pharmacology & Description of the properties of the pulmonary pharmacology and the periodical of the pulmonary pharmacology and the periodical of the pulmonary pharmacology and the periodical of the pulmonary pharmacol Ther</abbr-1>Pulm Pharmacol Ther</abbr-1>Pu

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5539</isbn><accession-num>21600999</accession-

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provider><language>eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. Therefore, physiological responses, other than cytotoxicity, that may be evoked by the surfactant may be evaluated. One further advantage of PCLS is that the assay can be performed on multiple species to determine inter-species variability in susceptibility.

Human PCLS, derived from, for example, rejected but otherwise healthy transplant tissue, can be used to measure cell/tissue viability, local respiratory inflammation, and physiological function. These endpoints can be measured in single and repeated exposures in a metabolically competent system within the normal architecture of the lung in a more relevant model system, replacing the need for animal testing [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA].

When human PCLS are not available, rat PCLS provide an alternate option. The PCLS test system has been pre-validated in multiple, independent laboratories, and the results showed correlation with *in vivo* LC₅₀ values [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. The use of rat PCLS reduce the number of animals used to conduct dose response studies, as compared to *in vivo* inhalation tests. From a rat lung (1 g), approximately 200 slices can be prepared. In general, for each test substance concentration, 2 slices are used, resulting in 100 different concentrations or repeats that can be tested using tissue from a single rat. Additionally, PCLS cultures are stable for up to 4 weeks and allows for exposures *via* liquid media or, with additional adaptations, air. As such, rodent PCLS meet the goal of reducing animal testing, although dosimetry models for their translation to HEC are not yet developed. Mechanistic rodent and human PCLS studies may be conducted in parallel to understand species specific difference in toxicological effects. The rationale for selection of the PCLS assay, as with any inhalation toxicity assay, should be scientifically justified in advance of initiating testing.

Uncertainties/Limitations of an AOP-MOA Approach to the Surfactant Category

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events in an AOP(s) relevant to characterize the Surfactant Category. Uncertainties and limitations associated with these assays are discussed for each of the above testing systems, as

A number of *in vitro* assays have been discussed as to their potential utility for assessing key

well as others [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. It is important to consider

that these assays were not systematically tested using surfactants. Nonetheless, these assays can

be conducted using an AOP MOA approach to provide information on whether a new chemical

meets the Surfactant Category criteria and/or to understand whether the new chemical may be

more or less bioactive or toxic than the sub-category comparator chemicals. EPA will generally

use the framework and analogue toxicity data identified in this investigation to assess potential

risks from surfactants.

In this regard, approaches to evaluate the scientific confidence of test methods for hazard assessment and risk assessment continues to evolve. A fit-for-purpose framework, employing specific criteria to establish relevancy, reliability, variability, sensitivity, and domain of applicability for evaluating a new method to inform specific decisions has emerged from the regulatory science community to address the challenges posed for validation of NAMs [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Such fit-for-purpose validation approaches are intended to be flexible and adaptable and to provide data sets, prediction analysis results, inference models, *etc.* in a transparent manner that enable other scientists to confirm the performance of the assays and inference models, as well as evaluate the rationale for using these assays in a specific decision context.

Once such fit-for-purpose scientific evaluations are documented, there are several ways that these assays can be used to reduce and replace animal testing. First, testing can be performed based on an AOP approach to evaluate the potency of new surfactants versus a comparator substance within the relevant subcategory that has repeated exposure inhalation toxicity data. Second, depositional data using models such as the RDDR or MPPD for determining the depositional fraction of the new surfactant may be used for test concentration estimation and for estimating a potency ratio. Finally, *in vitro* to *in vivo* extrapolations (IVIVEs) may be used to determine a HEC for quantitative risk assessment.

Tiered-testing Strategy

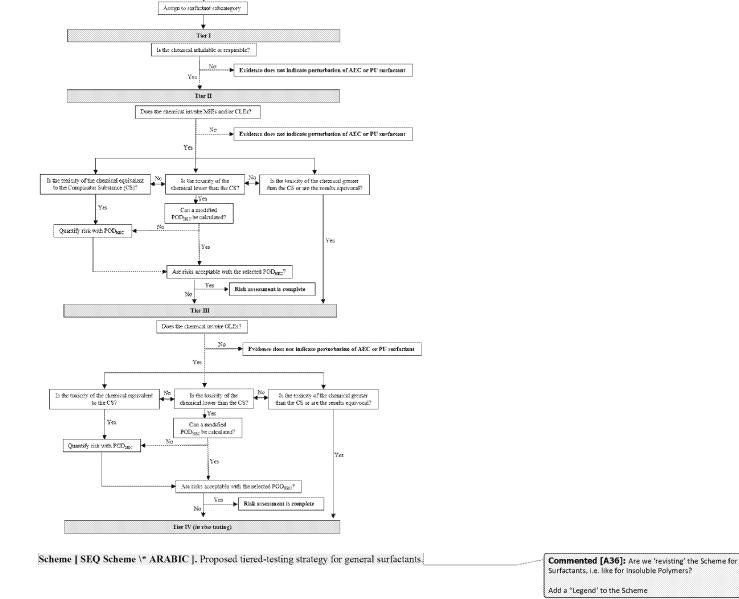
The first step in the tiered-testing strategy is to determine if the evaluated substance meets the Surfactant Criteria. If so, then assign the substance to the appropriate surfactant subcategory (nonionic, anionic, or cationic) and determine whether any of the representative subcategory chemicals may serve as an acceptable toxicological analogue for risk assessment or as a comparator substance for tiered testing. If a representative subcategory chemical is determined to be an acceptable toxicological analogue to the new chemical substance, then quantify risks using the toxicological analogue. If the MOE is equal to or greater than the benchmark MOE, then tiered testing is not required on the new chemical substance. If the MOE is lower than the benchmark MOE or if a determination cannot be made on whether any of the representative subcategory chemicals are acceptable toxicological analogues, then proceed with tiered testing using the most appropriate subcategory chemical as a comparator substance to the new chemical substance. As detailed below, the tiered-testing strategy commences with the least complex, most efficient testing methods, and at each subsequent tier, the complexity of the test system

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increases, commensurate with key events in proposed AOPs relevant to the Surfactant Category, to more effectively emulate the biology and physiology of the *in vivo* respiratory tract system. It is envisioned that both the new chemical substance and the comparator substance will be evaluated side-by-side in the NAM assays. The results of these studies may lead to the conclusion that the comparator substance is an acceptable toxicological analogue to the new chemical substance. Alternatively, the results may support that higher tiered testing is warranted, particularly when the new chemical substance has higher toxicity than the comparator substance. If *in vivo* testing is conducted, it may not be necessary to run the comparator substance in the *in vivo* tests, given that suitable inhalation studies are available on the comparator substances. A summary of the proposed tiered-testing strategy is provided in [REF _Ref48210489 \h *



Evidence does not indicate perturbation of AEC or PU surfactant

Does the chemical meet the Surfactant Criteria?

[PAGE]

Tier I—Physicochemical properties

Surfactants are proposed to cause a specific sequence of biological events in the respiratory tract if they are inhaled. Manufacture, processing, or use of a surfactant in an inhalable form, (*i.e.*, \$\leq\$ 100 \(\mu\) m aerodynamic diameter) is therefore, an initial consideration of the potential for a surfactant to cause toxicity to the respiratory tract. Particle size is an established parameter for determining inhalability/respirability of particles/droplets. Several validated test methods exist for determining potential inhalability/respirability, *i.e.*, particle size, of a new chemical substance (*e.g.*, OECD GD 39 [ADDIN EN.CITE
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>Guidance Document on Inhalation Toxicity Studies, Series on Testing and Assessment, No. 39 (Second Edition)

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Distribution (effective hydrodynamic radius); Method B: Fibre Length and Diameter
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en.pdf?expires=1596047951&id=id&accname=guest&checksum=A9C13F0DFD CF2A5DD4DD39DAC64C47BC</pages><volume>110</volume><dates><year>1981</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>], and OPPTS 830.7520 [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>1996</Year><RecNum>14822</RecNum>< DisplayText>[123]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14822</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596047315">14822</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

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037
/volume><dates><year>1996
/year></dates><urls></urls></record>
/Cite></EndNote>]). The studies shown in Table 3 suggest that the total respiratory tract may be affected from surfactants; therefore, inhalable forms (≤ 100 μm) were identified as the most relevant for quantitative inhalation risk assessment. As a practical matter, a particle size cutoff of greater than 1% inhalable particles/droplets by weight (wt%), determined in a well conducted study using a

valid measurement method will generally be considered as triggering a quantitative assessment of inhalation toxicity on a new chemical substance meeting the Surfactant Criteria. EPA will generally assess the potential inhalation toxicity for a new surfactant chemical substance when the manufacture, processing or use results in greater than 1% (by weight) of the surfactant particles/droplets having a particle size of less than 100 μ m. This wt% cutoff is consistent with EPA's "trace amounts" threshold for the nonreportable content for nanoscale materials [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2017</Year><RecNum>14823</RecNum><
DisplayText>[124]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14823</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
timestamp="1596047488">14823</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal
Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><titles><title>C hemical Substances When Manufactured or Processed as Nanoscale Materials; TSCA Reporting and Recordkeeping Requirements</title><secondary-title>Federal Register</secondary-title></title></periodical><full-title>Federal Register</full-title></periodical><pages>3641-3655</pages><volume>82</volume><number>8</number><dates><year>2017</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

If inhalable particles/droplets can be generated at greater than 1 wt% during manufacturing, processing, or any of the uses for the new chemical substance, proceed to Tier II.

Tier II—In vitro/Ex vivo studies

The following *in vitro/ex vivo* test methods may provide potentially useful information to determine whether a new chemical substance invokes MIEs and cellular level key events. In order to determine the best approach for *in vitro/ex vivo* testing, a pre-notice consultation with EPA is highly encouraged. In general, the testing approach in this tier should include a combination of assays, such as one that measures epithelial lining fluid/cell perturbation or pulmonary surfactant interaction/loss of function, one that measures cell membrane interaction/disruption/penetration), and one that measures loss of barrier integrity or general cytotoxicity (see [REF_Ref46931271 \h * MERGEFORMAT]). *In vitro/ex vivo* eye irritation studies may also be used to demonstrate cell interaction or penetration and general cytotoxicity, and *in vitro* skin irritation/corrosion studies can provide supporting evidence of possible irritant or corrosive effects in the respiratory tract.

For each assay, the comparator substance for the respective subcategory of surfactants should be tested under identical conditions. Further, the particle size distribution data may be used with dosimetry models such as RDDR or MPPD to aid with identifying the regions in the respiratory tract where deposition is expected to occur and the appropriate test concentrations for the *in vitrolex vivo* test systems, considering for example the surface area of the culture system or *ex vivo* tissue, loss mechanisms, *etc*.

Notwithstanding the uncertainties with the above assays, each may be used to determine a starting point to calculate a modified POD_{HEC} using *in vitro* to *in vivo* extrapolation (IVIVE) for the purpose of evaluating the relative potency of the new chemical substance versus the comparator substance. Several investigations have provided insight on approaches for

accomplishing this, although with different assay systems [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. In doing so, a weight of scientific evidence evaluation should be performed considering the structural features, physicochemical properties, and assay results on the new chemical substance versus the comparator substance. Based on this evaluation, the most biologically relevant endpoint(s) should be used to calculate a POD. BMD modeling may be applied to derive a BMCL_{1SD} metric, as a possible metric, although the metric of one standard deviation should be used with caution [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2019</Year><RecNum>14825</RecNum>< DisplayText>[126]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14825</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596048386">14825</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>T ransmittal of Meeting Minutes and Final Report for the Federal Insecticide Fungicide and Rodenticide Act, Science Advisory Panel (FIFRA SAP) Meeting held on December 4 and 6, 2018</title><secondary-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondarytitle></title><periodical><full-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>51,https://www.regulations.gov/contentStreamer?documentId=EPA-HQ-OPP-2018-0517-0030&contentType=pdf</pages><volume>EPA-HQ-OPP-2018-0517</volume><dates><year>2019</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]

. Alternative metrics should be considered, as our understanding evolves for various in vitro

assays and endpoints. For example, the pharmaceutical industry has used fixed adverse response thresholds that are appropriate for the specific biological assay (*i.e.*, EC₁₅, EC₃₀, *etc.*) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Regardless of the metric used, a justification for its selection should be provided. In those situations where data are not amenable to BMD modeling, the *in vitro* concentration tested should be determined based on the expected HEC for the appropriate subcategory (taking into account the necessary MOE) to ensure that the *in vitro* data are generated in a concentration range relevant to the expected HEC.

Given that the understanding of IVIVE is evolving, assay results should be interpreted in a manner consistent with the weight of scientific evidence, as noted above, while recognizing that uncertainties are often dealt with by erring on the side of conservativism. Therefore, the following initial default criteria are proposed for utilizing the assay results, and when possible, the IVIVE estimates. These criteria are consistent with EPA's approach for evaluating non-animal skin sensitization data [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14832</RecNum><
DisplayText>[128]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14832</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
timestamp="1596244984">14832</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal
Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>Interim Science Policy: Use of Alternative Approaches for Skin Sensitization as a Replacement for Laboratory Animal Testing (draft for public comment: April 4, 2018)</title><secondary-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention & Samp; Office of Research and

Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title></fine of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention & Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>13,

https://www.regulations.gov/contentStreamer?documentId=EPA-HQ-OPP-2016-0093-0090&contentType=pdf</pages><dates><year>2018</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>], while recognizing that the weight of scientific evidence may support an alternative interpretation to the default criteria.

The Tier II assays evaluate biologically relevant endpoints representing key events in AOPs relevant to the Surfactant Category. The results of the comparator substance and the new chemical substance in these assays provide a basis for evaluating the suitability of using the comparator substance to evaluate toxicity of the new chemical substance. Consideration should also be given to differences in the specific physicochemical properties influencing inhaled deposition (*i.e.*, MMAD, GSD, and density) between the comparator substance the new chemical. Dosimetry models such as RDDR and MPPD can be used to inform these comparisons.

If comparable toxicity is observed between the comparator substance and the new chemical substance in the Tier II assays, the POD_{HEC} from the comparator substance may be appropriately used as a toxicological analogue for quantifying the MOE. If calculated risk is acceptable stop at Tier II, otherwise proceed to Tier III.

If lower toxicity is observed for the new chemical substance versus the comparator substance in the Tier II assays, then these data should be used to determine if a modified POD_{HEC} can be quantified for the new chemical substance. If this is possible, the modified POD_{HEC} for the new chemical substance should be used for quantifying the MOE. If calculated risk is acceptable, then stop at Tier II. However, if it is not possible to calculate a modified POD_{HEC}, then the comparator substance POD_{HEC} could be used as a worse-case toxicological analogue for risk assessment. If no acceptable risk can be calculated, proceed to Tier III.

If greater toxicity is observed with the new chemical substance versus the comparator substance in the Tier II assays, suggesting risks would be identified as unacceptable, proceed to Tier III.

Alternatively, there may be scientifically justified reasons for an alternative interpretation, which should be clearly articulated with the weight of scientific evidence evaluation. Otherwise, it may be necessary to proceed to Tier III.

If the results from the Tier II assays are equivocal (*i.e.*, they do not demonstrate comparable or lower toxicity of the new chemical substance versus the comparator substance), and there is no clear rationale or explanation, then proceed to Tier III testing because the data are too uncertain to make a reasoned evaluation on the potential health risks, following potential inhalation exposures.

Tier III - 3D Human Airway Models/PCLS Assay

Several testing options are available for evaluating tissue and organ level key events in an AOP relevant to the Surfactant Category. The test system employed should focus on evaluating effects

in the respiratory tract at the predicted sites of deposition (*e.g.*, ET, TB and/or PU regions), based on the particle size distribution data generated under Tier I and using RDDR or MPPD modeling. A justification for using a system(s) should be provided and may be discussed with EPA as part of a pre-notice consultation. Representative test systems include those listed in [REF __Ref46931271 \h * MERGEFORMAT].

Based on the results of the 3D-construct and/or PCLS testing, IVIVE may be possible for developing a POD_{HEC} for use with characterizing potential risks using the MOE approach. Though the occupational/consumer exposure estimates may be the same between Tiers II and III, the Tier III test results may offer the opportunity for refining the risk estimates. For example, the BMR used for calculating the POD_{HEC} may be refined because the ALI-based exposure is more consistent with inhalation exposure in a human than the submerged culture exposures employed in Tier II [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14811</RecNum><
DisplayText>[112]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14811</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
timestamp="1596045320">14811</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal
Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>Is sue Paper: Evaluation of a Proposed Approach to Refine Inhalation Risk Assessment for Point of Contact Toxicity: A Case Study Using a New Approach Methodology (NAM)

</title><secondary-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S.

Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-

title></title></title></periodical><full-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>33, https://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/about_ntp/sacatm/2019/september/bcgnd-1-epa_case_study.pdf</pages><dates><year>2018</par></dates><url>></ri></ri></ri></ri></ra>*EndNote>]. Further, application of uncertainty factors for calculating the benchmark MOE may also be refined, if for example, human cultures are used, which may preclude the need for applying a UFA.

If the Tier III test data are amenable for developing a POD_{HEC}, then the risk estimates should be reassessed. If no risks are identified under the conditions of use, then stop at Tier III. If risks are still identified under the conditions of use or if the Tier III test data are not amenable for developing a POD_{HEC}, then proceed to Tier IV.

Tier IV - In vivo studies

Strategic *in vivo* testing may be considered as a last resort to inform the hazard and risk assessment of new chemical substances, particularly in those instances where a new chemical substance has unique properties that preclude a determination that one of the comparator substances in a subcategory has representative toxicological properties to the new chemical substance, as well as in instances where the test data generated under Tiers II and III are not amenable for deriving modified POD_{HECS}. A pre-notice consultation meeting with EPA is strongly encouraged prior to initiating any vertebrate animal testing. This point is especially important because TSCA section 4(h)(3) indicates that any person developing information for submission under TSCA section 5 on a voluntary basis shall first attempt to develop the

information by means of an alternative test method or strategy identified by EPA before conducting new vertebrate animal testing [ADDIN EN.CITE
<EndNote><Cite><Author>U.S.C.</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14796</RecNum>
<DisplayText>[85]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14796</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
timestamp="1596041048">14796</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>U.S.C.</author></authors></contributors><title>><title>
Title 15-Commerce and Trade, Chapter 53-Toxic Substances Control, Subchapter I-Control of Toxic SubstancesToxic Substancesfull-title>United States Code (U.S.C.)</secondary-title></title>title></periodical><pages>https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?path=/prelim@title15/chapter53&edition=prelim</pages><dates><year>2016Vear>/vear></dates><urls>VEndNote>].

The potential for surfactants to cause adverse effects on the respiratory tract are based on acute toxicity concerns, that is, interfering with epithelial lining fluid/pulmonary surfactant and/or disrupting cellular membranes and epithelial cytotoxicity. Since these effects may be captured using appropriate exposure concentrations in short-term inhalation studies, the following *in vivo* tests should be considered:

Step 1: OECD TGs 433, 436, and 403 address acute inhalation toxicity testing. OECD
 TG 433 is based on evident clinical signs of toxicity rather than death as an endpoint

(refinement) and TG 436 uses fewer of animals (reduction), and therefore, they should be considered before TG 403. Any protocol modifications should be discussed with EPA during a pre-notice consultation meeting.**

• Step 2: 5-Day inhalation study with a 14-day observation period** to address progression/resolution of effects. The OECD TG 412 [ADDIN EN.CITE
<EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14828</RecNum>2018</ri>CNum><DisplayText>[129]| DisplayText><record><rec-number>14828</recnumber>| Street | Stre

**Modifications may include pulmonary function testing (if measurable), analysis of BALF,
LDH release, complete histopathological analysis of the respiratory tract and blood oxygen (pO₂)
content. OECD TG 412 and OECD GD 39 [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>OECD</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14819</RecNum>

<DisplayText>[79]c-number>14819/rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596046851">14819</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>OECD</author></author></contributors></title><title >Guidance Document on Inhalation Toxicity Studies, Series on Testing and Assessment, No. 39 (Second Edition)</title><secondary-title>Environment Directorate, Joint Meeting of the Chemicals Committee and The Working Party on Chemicals, Pesticides and Biotechnology, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</secondarytitle></titles><periodical><full-title>Environment Directorate, Joint Meeting of the Chemicals Committee and The Working Party on Chemicals, Pesticides and Biotechnology, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</full-title></periodical><pages>106, https://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=env/jm/mono(2009)2 8/rev1&doclanguage=en</pages><volume>ENV/JM/MONO(2009)28/REV1</volume><d ates><year>2018</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>] should be consulted. Additionally, the sensory irritant potential can be measured using ASTM E 981 to determine reflex inhibition [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Alarie</Author><Year>2001</Year><RecNum>14826</RecNum> <DisplayText>[130]
/DisplayText><record><rec-number>14826
/rec-number><foreign-</p> keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596048712">14826</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Book Section">5</ref-type><contributors><author>Alarie, Y.</author><author>Nielsen, G.D.</author><author>Schaper, M.M.</author></authors><secondary-

authors><author>Spengler, B.</author><author>Samet, J. M.</author><author>McCarthy, J.F.</author></secondary-authors></contributors><titles><title>Animal Bioassays for Evaluation of Indoor Air Quality</title><secondary-title>Indoor Air Quality</title>
Handbook</secondary-title></title><pages>23.2123.49.</pages><dates><year>2001
year></dates><pub-location>New York</pub-location><publisher>McGraw-Hill
publisher><url>vrls></record></cite></EndNote>].

The results of the *in vivo* testing should be used for reassessing and recharacterizing the risks of the new chemical substance.

CONCLUSIONS

The overall objective of this investigation was to develop a chemical category for use in conducting inhalation risk assessment for new chemical surfactant substances under TSCA. This investigation developed physical-chemical properties, *i.e.*, the Surfactant Criteria, assessors and product stewards can use for determining whether a new chemical substance can be considered a surfactant. Further, properties and characteristics are provided to divide the Surfactant Category into sub-categories for nonionic, anionic, and cationic surfactants, which is important from a toxicological perspective. A systematic literature search and review were conducted to identify data to define a Surfactant Category and substances from which PODs were identified from inhalation toxicity studies. To facilitate chemical comparisons, animal toxicity studies that could be used to derive PODs for risk assessments were identified for at least one chemical substance for each sub-category and converted to HECs using established methods developed by EPA.

Finally, a tiered-testing strategy for generating de novo data for new surfactant substances is

provided that integrates a variety of currently available NAMs using an AOP framework. The

use of this tiered-testing strategy will inform the available data on surfactants and provide greater

confidence in the use of non-vertebrate testing approaches for assessing the potential risks of

new chemical substances. It also offers advantages to regulators, the regulated community, and

consumers because: 1) integrating NAMs into a category testing approach supports EPA, TSCA

and product stewardship goals of reducing and replacing vertebrate animal testing; 2) decision

analysis for higher tiered testing takes into consideration mechanistic responses, dosimetry, and

exposure information; and 3) it encourages development of mechanistic data to advance the

understanding of the potential inhalation toxicity of surfactants, which will drive the

development of newer and safer chemistries.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information file contains the following:

Section 1. Systematic Literature Review

Section 2. RDDR Modeling Outputs

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval

to the final version of the manuscript. These authors contributed equally.

Funding Sources

EPA sponsored the initial literature review through a government contract to SRC

(68HERH19F0197 (TO#07)). The American Chemistry Council's TSCA Section 5 Testing

Consortium sponsored an updated literature review by an independent third party.

Notes

Disclaimer: The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily

represent the views or policies of their respective employers. Mention of trade names or

commercial products does not constitute endorsement for use.

Disclosures: TS, AMJ, KS, WI, and TRH are employed by the federal government. MPH, WK,

AMK, SM, LJ, JLR, AT, and RT are employed by companies that manufacture, process, and/or

use surfactants. RAB and SOS are employed by a company that represents companies that

manufacture, process, and/or use surfactants. PDM and SDS work for a company that received

contract funding from companies that manufacture, process, and/or use surfactants. MO and JM

work for a company that receives contract funding from the federal government. AJC and MS are employed by a company whose mission is to advance animal-free testing approaches that protect human health and the environment.

REFERENCES

[ADDIN EN.REFLIST]

The reviews for your paper are enclosed with this letter. Please consider the reviewers' comments. They have raised points that require significant consideration and revision of the manuscript before it is suitable for publication.

In addition, the authors should clarify the message of their work and decrease its length: many materials should be included as a supplementary material.

As the manuscript is considered for the Special Issue: Computational Toxicology (January 2021), we needed to shorten the usual revision time. The manuscript is due 1-Dec-2020. Please let us know if that would be convenient for you.

Please also note that all manuscripts that deserve publication and are not submitted in time for the special issue, will be published in CRT regular issue.

When submitting your revised manuscript through ACS Paragon Plus, you will be able to respond to the comments made by the reviewer(s) in the text box provided or by attaching a file containing your response letter. In your cover letter please include your detailed responses to all of the points raised by the reviewers.

When submitting a revised manuscript, authors should include a version of the manuscript that has the Tracked Changes feature turned on, so editors and reviewers can see the revisions that were made to the original manuscript. Please upload this version of the manuscript under the tag "Supporting Information for Review Only." Authors should still indicate page and line numbers when referring to edited text in their response letter to the reviewers. An unmarked, final version of the manuscript should be uploaded under the tag "Manuscript File."

Reviewer(s)' Comments to Author:

Comment Addressed – barring any objections/edits

Comment Needs Addressing – who can address?

To Do/Check in FINAL Review

Reviewer: 1

Comments:

The work by Henry et al. presents an analysis of the impact of surfactants upon inhalation. The topic may be interesting, however authors present the topic in such a way that is very difficult to understand the message. The work deals mainly with literature data. However, the connection between them and their selection are not clear.

The authors note that the comments regarding understandability are in sharp contrast to those of reviewer #2, who was complementary regarding purpose, clarity and flow. As noted by Reviewer #2, the manuscript describes "the development of a chemical category for use in conducting inhalation risk assessment for new chemical surfactant substances under TSCA. The paper describes in detail the literature found on surfactants and inhalation, suggest how AOPs and NAMs can be used for risk assessment, and a scheme for how this would done."

The authors have shortened the abstract and the manuscript considerably and believe this should make clearer to the reader that this is, by design, a literature-based investigation for the purpose of establishing a TSCA New Chemicals Category, for use in evaluating new surfactant chemicals under the U.S. Toxic Substances Control Act.

Some points to address are:

1. Authors should correct spelling and typos within the entire manuscript.

The authors conducted a spell check of the Draft Proof (pdf file) and of the submitted MSWord file version of the manuscript (from which the pdf was generated) and did not identify any spelling errors in either document. We cannot check on specific instances since they are not identified by the reviewer. Nonetheless, the authors have conducted a spelling and grammar check (using MSWord) on the revised manuscript and have corrected the two typographical errors specifically identified by reviewer 2.

- Abstract is too long, and difficult to follow. Authors should rewrite concisely the abstract. They shoul
 present the main aims and interests of their work, avoiding to present a detailed summary.
 The authors have shortened the abstract. The revised abstract is 293 words, under the
 journal limit of 300 words.
- What is the meaning of EPA? Authors should define all the abbreviation.
 Resource: As defined on line 28 of the Draft Proof, EPA is the abbreviation for the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.
- 4. Some information about the differences between the chosen approaches, and the information contained with REACH would be required

Response: As indicated in the draft manuscript, the approach described is focused on assessments conducted under the U.S.'s Toxic Substances Control Act. Therefore, the authors respectfully disagree that a comparison to REACH approaches is required. However, the authors have included text acknowledging REACH and to clarify that while the approaches in the manuscript are broadly

Commented [TH1]: All review/edit and return to all, esp Tala by COB Th, 11/19/20

Commented [HT2]: FROM RICK BECKER:

We'll probably have to write a note to the editor pointing out that Reviewer 1's perspectives are REACH-centric, and as clearly indicated, this paper is focused on TSCA. And that while we have addressed Reviewer 1's comments on other aspects of the manuscript, we have not broadened it to address REACH, since that is not the focus or scope of our paper. And that although the underlying scientific approaches in this article are broadly applicable, a wholly separate effort would be needed to address the specific legislative and regulatory structures of REACH.

2. I suggest we add some text acknowledging REACH, but pointing out that TSCA legislation / regulations are quite different from REACH, making it even clearer (although I think it is already clear) that this approach has been developed for TSCA, and add text along the lines of "although the underlying scientific approaches in this article are broadly applicable, a wholly separate effort would be needed to address the specific legislative and regulatory structures of REACH."

applicable for assessment of surfactants, they may or may not be applicable within the specific regulatory framework of REACH.

Furthermore, both reviewers have indicated the manuscript should be shortened. To add additional information regarding REACH would be counter to this request by the reviewers.

[Discussed and decided to also write to Editor only regarding conflicting comments regarding the manuscript being too long vs adding additional information and that REACH is really out of scope of this manuscript. ...see Rick Becker notes in the Comment Bubble]

"A surfactant is a substance that reduces the surface tension of a liquid in which is dissolved" This definition is misleading and simple. In some cases surfactant are insoluble, eg. lipids

The authors agree the definition is simple, as a starting point. It is followed by a more functional definition, i.e., regarding surface tension. Furthermore, the statement is not about water solubility and surfactants must have solubility in the solution to which they are added in order to be surface active. Nonetheless, the authors have provided an alternative definition and a reference for it in the revised manuscript, as follows:

Any compound that reduces surface tension when dissolved in water or water solutions, or which reduces interfacial tension between two liquids, or between a liquid and a solid. Howley's Condensed Chemical Dictionary, R. Lewis, Van Nostrand Reinhold Co.; 1993, pg. 1108.

 About toxicity of surfactants is should be included in the reference list Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces 123 (2014) 701-709 [Guzman et al., 2014; on CTAB 'a cationic surfactant', i.e., quaternary ammonium cmod!

The study referenced, Guzman et al., 2014, is a study of the "The effect of a cationic surfactant, hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), on the interfacial properties of seawater" and concludes, "The results of this study underline the important role of the sea organic content in enhancing the surface-activity of surfactants, which is relevant for a deeper understand of the direct and indirect effects of these types of pollutants on the physico-chemical environment in the sea coastal areas and develop mitigation strategies." This study does not measure human or mammalian surfactant toxicity; hence, the authors do not see the linkage of this reference in the discussion of toxic effects of surfactants in conducting human health risk assessments under TSCA.

7. About inhalation toxicity, it should be included the work Current Opinion in Colloid and Interface Science 39 (2019) 24-39 (Guzman & Santini; Review article focusing on effects of particulates on biological/lung surfactants; has some good words about use of model systems to evaluate effects on lung surfactants)

Rick

8. Authors should provide a definition of toxicokinetic and toxicodynamic -

Resource Toxicokinetics is generally considered the processes of absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of a toxicant. Toxicodynamics is generally considered the mode of toxic action of a toxicant. The authors have provided these general definitions parenthetically at first occurrence of these terms in the revised manuscript (i.e., page XX INTRO)

 About the change of mechanical properties of the lung surfactant layer, the reference The Journal of Physical Chemistry C 119 (2015) 26937-26947

Response: The reference, Guzman et al., 2015, looks at the effects of carbon nanoparticles on the primary lung surfactant, Dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine. Carbon nanoparticles do not meet the

traditional definition of a surfactant and are outside the boundary conditions in this paper which covers commercial surfactants. The authors note that there is a companion paper in this special issue of Chem Res Tox that looks at the effects of poorly soluble polymeric particles in the lungs.

10. The interest of the problem of surfactant inhalation is not clear. Normally, they are used in solution. Are the authors discussing the inhalation of the powder surfactant? Otherwise the interest of the work is scarce. This point should be clarified.

The majority of commercial surfactants are liquids and those that are powders are typically engineered to be of a non-respirable particle size. While we agree there is not significant consumer exposure via inhalation, surfactants are both manufactured and processed in industrial settings where exposure could be relevant. Additionally, there could be workplace exposure in commercial applications. EPA has the responsibility to assess these uses, which this manuscript addresses.

11. Authors mentions the subcategories of surfactants. However, they do not comment anything on the polymeric surfactant and the possible role of colloidal particles as surfactants.

The most common classifications of surfactants are based on charge. These are nonionic, anionic, cationic, and amphoteric. Polymeric surfactants are included within each of these categories based on their charge or lack thereof. Most polymeric surfactants are nonionic. As an example, the nonionic surfactant Triton X-100 (ethoxylated octylphenol) is a polymeric surfactant.

This manuscript is focused on US EPA guidance related to the review of new chemical substances which are surfactants. Hence, colloidal particles are out of scope for this paper as they are not within the boundary criteria, nor would a colloidal suspension (e.g., a product containing particles suspended in another chemical) be subject to new chemical review.

12. Authors mention several test to evaluate the toxicity. However, they do not provide details on the foundation of such tests, making difficult the comparison of data.

Response: In the manuscript section entitled, Use of New Approach Methods (NAMS) and In Vitro Testing Strategies to Reduce or Replace Vertebrate Testing, the authors first provide a summary table (Table 4) of potential methods for evaluating chemicals in the surfactant category. This summary table is then followed by descriptions of the scientific tenets of each of the tests referenced (e.g., On page X, "Sorii et al., (2017) developed an in vitro lung surfactant interaction assay that specifically measures whether a substance alters the surface tension of pulmonary surfactant," and on page Y, "...several human organotypic airway models have been developed that allow for the assessment of multiple endpoints in 3D culture systems." Additionally, specific details regarding some of the most recent or novel tests are also provided (e.g., on page X, "Organotypic airway cultures, such as $EpiAirway^{TM}$ and $MucilAir^{TM}$, take on a pseudostratified morphology; develop tight junctions; differentiate into multiple cell types, including basal cells, ciliated cells, and gobiet cells; generate mucus; exhibit ciliary beating; have xenobiotic metabolizing capacity; and maintain homeostasis for months in culture. All of the tests included in the summary table and the text have been published, either as journal articles or as test guidelines by international authorities and are fully referenced. To include additional methodological details about every referenced test would be unusual and would also be contrary to the reviewers' requests for shortening the manuscript.

Reviewer: 2

Commented [HT3]: Discuss with Todd

Comments:

Henry et al investigated the development of a chemical category for use in conducting inhalation risk assessment for new chemical surfactant substances under TSCA. The paper describes in detail the literature found on surfactants and inhalation, suggest how AOPs and NAMs can be used for risk assessment, and a scheme for how this would done.

1. [LENGTH] The paper is well laid out, contains clear language and flows nicely. It describes very well how the risk assessment could be performed. However, I think the length could deter some readers, if the length is kept, I would suggest that you start with an index so that readers can find any information that they are most interested in.

Response: The authors thank the reviewer for the complements on writing and flow. In response to the reviewer's comment regarding length of the manuscript, the authors have streamlined the paper significantly [XX pages and moved certain sections (e.g., YYY) into supplementary materials.

[ABBREVIATIONS] In line with this, the paper is very abbreviation heavy, so a list of
abbreviations would be very helpful, this would also let you catch those abbreviations that are
not defined (at least I could not find them). These include: BMCL (p.17) UFH, UFA, and UFL (p.
68).

Response: The authors thank the reviewer for the suggestion to make a list of abbreviations; it was most helpful in conducting final review of the manuscript. The authors suggest including the list in supplementary materials due to concerns about the length of the manuscript but will defer to the Editor regarding final placement of the list. [Tala or Keith]

[FONT] It may be a product of conversion to pdf, but the font and size changes throughout the paper.

<u>Response</u>: The font type and size has been checked and made consistent throughout the document. [Tala – Final Review]

4. [REFERENCE FORMAT] For the references section: Several references are inconsistent in order, as they are "Surname, initials, initials, surname"

Response: All references have been checked and comply with the format requested by the journal. [Todd/Endnote]

e.g. 54. Alarie, Y. and M.F. Stock, Respiratory Irritancy on a Mixture containing Polyethylene Glycol Mono(Octyl)Phenyl Eether CAS #9035-19-5. ChemView - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1992: p. 37,

Response: [EPA will do]

- Also referencing to dossiers is strange (what is the R?):

59. Dossier, R., N-methyl-N-[C18-(unsaturated)alkanoyl]glycine, CASRN: NA, EC number: 701-177-3, Skin irritation/corrosion. European Chemicals Agency, 2020:

- The links in references 89 and 90 do not work (I tried 2 different browsers, at separate days) Response: [EPA will do]

5. For page 29: The substance self-associates in water to form micellar or vesicular aggregates at a concentration of 0.5 wt% or less.

How is this tested?

[PAGE 18 of WORD document: add (as determined by standard methods)
There are a number of techniques that utilize light scattering or steady-state fluorescence quenching to determine the formation of micelles and vesicles. The critical micelle concentration (CMC) value can be determined by plotting a curve of concentration versus surface tension. Since there are a variety of methods available, the authors did not want to suggest a specific method in order to provide flexibility to the reader.

- 6. For page 75: You write "including validated OECD methods for in vitro irritation testing and in vitro methods to specifically assess respiratory toxicity". This is not referenced, to my knowledge there are no validated OECD methods to specifically assess respiratory toxicity, please provide more info/reference.
 - [EPA will do]
- 7. For page 54: Cationic Surfactants

You may like to include the paper "Airway Effects of Inhaled Quaternary Ammonium Compounds in Mice" by Larsen et al that describes airway effects after inhalation. Doi: 10.1111/j.1742-7843.2011.00851.x [ACUTE inhalation study of 4 Quats; relative potency in causing decreased tidal volume and increased respiratory rate indicating pulmonary irritation; pulmonary inflammation apparent from BAL; ADD TO IN VIVO SECTION OF CATIONIC — STARTS PAGE 34 OF WORD Document]

Response: The authors have added a summary and refered to the study by Larsen et al. to the Hazard Identification section on Cationic Surfactants. Thank you for the citation. [Keith]

- 8. For Scheme 1: (Page 63 of WORD document)
 - a. What does "CLEs" after Tier 2 stand for?

<u>Response</u>: CLEs means Cellular Level Effect corresponding to the Level of Biological Organization in Table 4. The authors have included the abbreviation in Table 4 (first occurrence) and have added a legend to Scheme 1 in the revised manuscript.

- b. Also "OLEs", (presumably occupational exposure limits) is not defined in the text. <u>Response</u>: OLEs means Tissue or Organ Level Effect corresponding to the Level of Biological Organization in Table 4. The authors have included the abbreviation in Table 4 (first occurrence) and have added a legend to Scheme 1 in the revised manuscript.
- c. Is the comparator substance the same in tier 2 and tier 3, if so how do the tiers differ? <u>Response</u>: [comparator = analog] Determination of the comparator would need to be considered at each Tier. Optimally, it would be best in compiling a weight of evidence that the comparator is the same across the testing tiers; however, there could be technical/testing issues that would make it necessary to use different.

d. What is the difference between "evidence does not indicate perturbation of AEC or PU surfactant" and "risk assessment complete"?

<u>Response</u>: If the result of the decision criteria are not met then the evidence does not indicate perturbation of alveolar epithelial cells (AEC) or pulmonary (PU) surfactant. The authors have spelled these out rather than use acronyms in the revised manuscript.

Commented [HT4]: Review for clarity/grammar

OF

Revise this box in the Scheme to more clearly indicate the decision criteria not met means the chemical does not fit into the Category (for Tier 0 and Tier I) or lung toxicity is not a concern (Tier II and Tier III) ...be more explicit about the hazard conclusion? [Todd or master of the Scheme]

Risk Assessment Complete indicates that if the lift he testing conducted as designated in that Tier provides a point of departure (POD) for the toxic effect that can be used to quantify risk and the risk is acceptable under the regulatory scheme, then the risk assessment can be completed without conducting additional testing in higher tiers.

e. Would the former trigger testing so that you can achieve "risk assessment complete" <u>Response</u>: Yes; if the if the testing conducted as designated in that Tier provides a point of departure (POD) for the toxic effect that can be used to quantify risk and the risk is acceptable under the regulatory scheme, then the risk assessment can be completed without conducting additional testing in higher tiers.

Some errors:

- 9. Page 46: missing space "Polysorbate 80 (Tween 80)and" Response The typographical error has been corrected.
- 10. Page 60: First line, a full stop too much "and. Ulceration"

 The typographical error has been corrected.

Commented [TH5]: All comment on Scheme language/clarity by COB Thursday 11/19/20

Message

From: Franz, Christina [Christina_Franz@americanchemistry.com]

Sent: 2/20/2019 6:22:55 PM

To: Schweer, Greg [Schweer.Greg@epa.gov]

CC: Pierce, Alison [Pierce.Alison@epa.gov]; Scheifele, Hans [Scheifele.Hans@epa.gov]; Henry, Tala

[Henry.Tala@epa.gov]; Wormell, Lance [Wormell.Lance@epa.gov]; Starr, Richard

[Richard_Starr@americanchemistry.com]; Brozena, Sarah [Sarah_Brozena@americanchemistry.com]

Subject: RE: Names for the PMN Session

This was the proposal Kelly and I discussed:

9:30 AM - 10:30 AM PMN Workshop: Session 1

Greg Schweer, EPA (25 mins) – TSCA Section 5 Updates, new regulatory determinations, and introduction to the new chemical review process

David Tobias, EPA (25 mins) – Introduction of the Points to Consider Document and outline of additional information to provide with new chemical submissions

Q & A - 10 minutes

10:45 AM - 11:45 AM PMN Workshop: Session 2

Rebecca Edelstien, EPA (25 minutes) – PreNotice Communication process and how to coordinate with the Agency postnotification

Kelly Mayo, knoell USA (25 minutes) – Tips for preparing notification packages and strategies for supply chain communication

Q & A - 10 minutes

From: Franz, Christina

Sent: Wednesday, February 20, 2019 12:53 PM

To: Schweer, Grea

Cc: Pierce, Alison; Scheifele, Hans; Henry, Tala; Wormell, Lance; Starr, Richard; Brozena, Sarah

Subject: RE: Names for the PMN Session

Hello Greg:

I am not quite sure what happened in the communications between Richard Starr, Alison Pierce, Hans Scheifele and/or communications between Alison, Hans, and you, but let me try at least to explain my perspective on my own confusion and how I would propose to resolve the confusion.

The panel description that I was given on the Global Chem agenda identifies you and two other EPA presenters--David Tobias and Rebecca Edelstein. The fourth presenter was Kelly Mayo Bean. Kelly's organization is a sponsor, which is expensive and afforded her the opportunity to cover about 40 minutes of the presentation. That is why when I sent out the meeting invite for our discussion a few weeks ago, I sent it to you, David, Rebecca, and Kelly. I was very surprised when we had the call that you had as many people from EPA on the phone and all had a planned presentation. However, I didn't feel I was in a position to say much about it at the moment as a stand-in as moderator because I wasn't certain I had all the facts at my disposal. However, I was surprised by your comment, Greg, during the call that you did not know Kelly was a part of the panel.

Once our call was completed, it became clear the Kelly would not really have much of an opportunity to speak. This is posing a problem for her company as a sponsor. It appears to me, albeit from the outside since I am not part of the organizing team, that a possible miscommunication happened at EPA--largely because Greg said that he did not know Kelly was supposed to be a part of the panel. If I am incorrect about that, my apologies, I am only trying to piece this together. I think the only right thing to do is to return to the original format and divide the presentation up accordingly.

I had a phone conversation with Kelly and made notes on what that division might look like, but I am not in the office this week and do not have it in front of me. I would have to write to her and get that breakout by email. Perhaps it is readily apparent to you knowing her background and those of David and Rebecca, but it is not to me--apologies for that. I do recall that Kelly suggested perhaps the others from EPA you wanted to present could be in attendance to answer questions that the audience might have regardig their areas of expertise.

Does this make sense to folks?

I have copied Richard Starr and Sarah Brozena on this email as well--Richard because he is ACC's Global Chem organizer and Sarah because she was on our panel call with me, although we had agreed that I would moderate the panel.

In closing, it is a shame there has been a mixup with this session. I certainly don't want to offend anyone or cast any aspersions--these things happen sometimes. I just think returning to the original plan is the correct thing to do for all concerned.

Christina

From: Schweer, Greg [Schweer.Greg@epa.gov] **Sent:** Wednesday, February 20, 2019 11:29 AM

To: Franz, Christina

Cc: Pierce, Alison; Scheifele, Hans; Henry, Tala; Wormell, Lance

Subject: Re: Names for the PMN Session

Christina,

This is an interesting turn of events. How do you and Kelly want to schedule her 40 minutes? We will need to shorten our presentations (or at least skip slides) or shorten the Q&A time.

From: Starr, Richard < Richard Starr@americanchemistry.com>

Sent: Wednesday, February 20, 2019 10:55 AM

To: Scheifele, Hans

Cc: Pierce, Alison; Franz, Christina; Schweer, Greg

Subject: Re: Names for the PMN Session

Hi Hans, thanks for the note - I hope you're enjoying the light snow today. This matter is probably better resolved over the phone, but the weather is giving us little choice.

As happens sometimes, I think there may have been a mix up at some point. Kelly is with Knoell consulting, and they have paid for a sponsorship which encompasses a 40 minute presentation, so we will provide her that time, whether it is 20 minutes at the end of each half of the session (which may have been a source of the misunderstanding), or all at once. That is up to the group to split up, of course.

As I mentioned on the phone, the total time is 120 minutes (two one hour sessions with a 15 minute break in between), so the remaining 80 minutes is free to be split up however the group decides.

Sent from my iPhone

On Feb 19, 2019, at 10:06 PM, Scheifele, Hans < Scheifele. Hans@epa.gov> wrote:

Hi Richard,

I'm following up on our conversation and email last Friday. Sorry for not getting back to you until now. I spoke with Greg Schweer and understand that he, Christina and others, including Kelly I believe, discussed the details last Wednesday and it was agreed that Kelly would have 20 minutes (at the end of the session as I understand it). I need to defer to the decisions of the planning group as discussed and agreed to last week. I've cc'ed Greg here if you have more questions. If I've misunderstood something Greg can clarify and/or discuss details further with Christina and you.

Thanks, Hans

On Feb 14, 2019, at 1:36 PM, Starr, Richard < Richard_Starr@americanchemistry.com wrote:

Hi Alison (and Hans),

Thank you for providing me with these names.

We truly appreciate the interest in this session, though we'd like to ensure that the format leaves room for the non-EPA presenter on the panel.

I'd like to reduce the number of formal presentations per hour to the original format (unless staff would like to tag in/out). This would ensure that each speaker/presenter could average about 20 minutes per hour including questions (Kelly Mayo's presentation is about 40 minutes, and would thus count for two slots). Any additional folks that do not make formal presentations could certainly be made available for Q&A portions of the session.

I've copied Christina Franz, our moderator for the session, to clarify anything I missed, and help answer any questions about the format we're looking for.

Thank you!

Richard Starr | American Chemistry Council
Manager, Regulatory & Technical Affairs
richard_starr@americanchemistry.com
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O: (202) 249-6443 C: Ex. 6 Personal Privacy (PP) - personal phone
www.americanchemistry.com

From: Pierce, Alison [mailto:Pierce.Alison@epa.gov]

Sent: Wednesday, February 13, 2019 3:12 PM

To: Starr, Richard

Subject: Names for the PMN Session

Richard – Per discussion, here's our current slew of folks who will be helping out on the PMN session:

- Greg Schweer
- Rebecca Edelstein
- David Tobias
- Jeff Gallagher
- Keith Salazar
- Scott Prothero

Best, Alison

ALISON PIERCE

Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics U.S. Environmental Protection Agency 1200 Pennsylvania Ave., N.W. Washington, DC 20460 USA

PIERCE.ALISON@EPA.GOV 202.564.2437

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Message

From: Stedeford, Todd [Stedeford.Todd@epa.gov]

Sent: 10/30/2020 10:33:25 PM

To: Irwin, William [Irwin.William@epa.gov]; Henry, Tala [Henry.Tala@epa.gov]; Salazar, Keith [Salazar.Keith@epa.gov];

Jarabek, Annie [Jarabek.Annie@epa.gov]; amyjc@piscltd.org.uk; Monita Sharma [monitas@piscltd.org.uk];

Sahar_Osman-Sypher@americanchemistry.com

Subject: Manuscript Proof PDF (lung overload) with line numbers

Attachments: draft Proof hi.pdf

All, please find the attached proof that matches up with the line numbers referenced by the peer reviewers. My apologies for the oversight and not distributing this sooner.

From: Irwin, William < Irwin. William@epa.gov>

Sent: Friday, October 30, 2020 6:26 PM

To: Stedeford, Todd <Stedeford.Todd@epa.gov>

Subject: Manuscript Proof PDF

Hi Todd,

I was looking at the manuscript reviewer comments with the line numbers. I don't believe that you ever sent me the PDF proof of the lung overload manuscript that was submitted. Could you please send it to me so that I can follow the comments easier?

Thanks,

William Irwin, PhD, DABT, ERT, FATS
Senior Toxicologist
Fellow Academy of Toxicological Sciences
AB1, RAD, OPPT, OCSPP
US EPA

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Polymer Lung Overload Category: The Application of a New Approach Methodology (NAM) for Assessing Inhalation Risks under the Amended Toxic Substances Control Act

Journal:	Chemical Research in Toxicology
Manuscript ID	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
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SCHOLARONE* Manuscripts Polymer Lung Overload Category: The Application of a New Approach Methodology (NAM) for Assessing Inhalation Risks under the Amended Toxic Substances Control Act

Todd Stedeford^{a,*}, Gregory S. Ladics^b, Owen T. Price^c, Annie M. Jarabek^d, Ann Tveit^e,

Michael P. Hayes^f, Raphaël T. Tremblay^f, Stephanie A. Snyder^g, Keith D. Salazar^h,

Sahar Osman-Sypher^f, William Irwin^h, Marc Odin^f, Julie Melia^f, Heather Carlson-Lynch^f,

and Tala R. Henry^a

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^d Health & Environmental Effects Assessment Division, Center for Public Health &

Environmental Assessment, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental

Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina 27711, United States

e BASF Corporation, Florham Park, New Jersey 07932, United States

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KEYWORDS: Inhalation, Lung Overload, New Approach Methods, Particle Toxicity,

Risk Assessment.

ABSTRACT

Poorly soluble and non-reactive high-molecular weight (HMW) polymers (>10,000 Daltons) represent a generic category of substances that are extensively used in industrial and consumer applications (e.g., plastics). Under the 2016 amended Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA), HMW polymers may qualify for an exemption from the pre-notification requirements that exist for polymeric, new chemical substances. However, for HMW polymers that do not meet the exemption criteria and are produced in a respirable form (e.g., powders), the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) will evaluate hazards and risks of these substances for lung overload. In the present evaluation, a systematic review of the literature was performed to identify studies that would aid with defining key properties for determining whether respirable HMW polymers may present an unreasonable risk to human health. These properties included: respirability, reactivity, and solubility and were used for defining the inclusion/exclusion criteria for a chemical category on HMW polymers. Available inhalation toxicity studies for HMW polymers were evaluated and dosimetric

adjustments used to derive human equivalent concentrations for a toxicological analogue that may be used as a first step in risk assessments on these substances.

Finally, a tiered-testing strategy was developed as a new approach method that maximizes the use of non-vertebrate testing that may be used to evaluate newer chemistries to determine whether they fit within the chemical category of HMW polymers that may present a lung overload hazard or for refining risk estimates for such chemical substances.

INTRODUCTION

The Frank R. Lautenberg Chemical Safety for the 21st Century Act was signed into law on June 22nd, 2016, thereby amending the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA), the nation's primary chemicals management law for regulating new and existing chemical substances. The amendments to TSCA placed new requirements on the U.S.

Environmental Protection Agency (hereinafter "EPA" or the "Agency") to reduce and replace vertebrate animals in testing of chemical substances, to the extent practicable and scientifically justified, and requires EPA to make one of the following five

determinations for new chemical substances, based on unreasonable risk, sufficiency of information, and exposure:

- The new chemical substance or significant new use presents an unreasonable risk of injury to health or the environment (TSCA §5(a)(3)(A));
- The available information is insufficient to allow the Agency to make a
 reasoned evaluation of the health and environmental effects associated with
 the new chemical substance or significant new use (TSCA §5(a)(3)(B)(i));
- 3. In the absence of sufficient information, the new chemical substance or significant new use may present an unreasonable risk of injury to health or the environment (TSCA §5(a)(3)(B)(ii)(I));
- 4. The new chemical substance is or will be produced in substantial quantities and either enters or may enter the environment in substantial quantities or there is or may be significant or substantial exposure to the new chemical substance (TSCA §5(a)(3)(B)(ii)(II)); or

5. The new chemical substance or significant new use is not likely to present an unreasonable risk of injury to health or the environment (TSCA §5(a)(3)(C)).

For findings of unreasonable risk, EPA is required to take risk management actions (*e.g.*, consent orders with testing requirements, restrictions on manufacturing, processing, use, disposal, *etc.*) to address unreasonable risks before a company may commence manufacture or processing of the new chemical substance.

EPA reviews all data submitted with a new chemical substance notification; however, unlike laws with prescribed, "up-front" testing requirements (*e.g.*, the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act, FIFRA), the data requirements for new chemical substance notifications are limited to health or environmental effects in the possession or control of the entity submitting the new chemical substance notification [1].

EPA's New Chemicals Program (NCP) has historically used various approaches to evaluate the potential hazards of new chemical substances including computational toxicology models and category approaches to "read-across" from existing data to new chemical substances for various requisite extrapolations. EPA's TSCA NCP developed 56 chemical categories (hereinafter the "NCP Chemical Categories") based on specific definitions and categorical boundaries that summarize the hazard concerns (*e.g.*, human health or environmental toxicity) and recommend testing prior to submitting a new chemical substance notification [2].

Although the NCP Chemical Categories document provides transparency to the regulated community on the potential concerns that EPA may have for hazards of specific chemistries or physicochemical properties, the NCP Chemical Categories were developed prior to the amendments to TSCA, and therefore, do not reflect new vertebrate testing reduction goals [3, 4]. For example, the testing strategy in the NCP

Chemical Categories document for respirable, poorly soluble particles¹ includes a 90-day subchronic inhalation toxicity study in rats with a 60-day recovery period [2].

Further, the NCP Chemical Categories cover defined boundaries and therefore may not include alternative chemistries that are intended to replace a chemical in the current NCP Chemical Categories (*e.g.*, the use of polymeric alternatives to replace monomeric forms of existing chemical substances).

Based on the Agency's experience gained by reviewing over 12,000 polymers, EPA has developed exemption criteria for specific types of polymeric substances, based on its findings that they "will not present an unreasonable risk of injury to human health or the environment under terms of the exemption" [5]. New chemical substances meeting these criteria are exempt from the new chemical substance notification requirements, although there are still annual reporting and recordkeeping requirements [6].

¹ EPA identified particles as "respirable" to humans "if there are any particles ≤10 μ[m] in diameter [not otherwise specified, *e.g.*, physical or aerodynamic] in the material being handled by workers" and included "poorly soluble" compounds citing ILSI (2000) [58].

EPA established three polymer exemption types, designated as E1, E2, and E3. The general criteria for new polymer substances meeting these exemption types are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. EPA's exemption criteria for new chemical substances meeting the regulatory definition of a polymer.

Exemption Type ^{a,b}	Number-average molecular weight	Oligomeric Material Criteria	Functional Groups (FGs) and Functional Group Equivalent Weight (FGEW) Content	
	(NAMW)			
E1			Low concern FGs: no limit	
	1,000 ≤ NAMW < 10,000	< 10 wt% below 500 Daltons	Moderate-concern FGs: FGEW ≥ 1,000	
		< 25 wt% below 1,000	Moderate-concern FGs + High concern FGs: FGEW _{combined} ≥	
		Daltons	5,000	
			High-concern FGs: FGEW ≥ 5,000	
E2	NAMW ≥ 10,000	< 2 wt% below 500 Daltons	No FG restrictions	
		< 5 wt% below 1,000 Daltons		
E3	No limit	No limit	Polyesters made from one or more of the reactants listed in Table	

·	 y	
		1 of 40 CFR § 723.250(e)(3) [6]
		, , , , , , <u> </u>

a See 40 CFR § 723.250(b) Polymers. "Polymer means a chemical substance consisting of molecules characterized by the sequence of one or more types of monomer units and comprising a simple weight majority of molecules containing at least 3 monomer units which are covalently bound to at least one other monomer unit or other reactant and which consists of less than a simple weight majority of molecules of the same molecular weight. Such molecules must be distributed over a range of molecular weights wherein differences in the molecular weight are primarily attributable to differences in the number of monomer units. In the context of this definition, sequence means that the monomer units under consideration are covalently bound to one another and form a continuous string within the molecule, uninterrupted by units other than monomer units." [6]

b The following exclusions apply: Cationic polymers, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(1) [6]; Elemental limitations, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(2) [6]; Polymers which degrade, decompose, or depolymerize, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(3) [6]; Polymers manufactured or imported from monomers and reactants not on the TSCA Chemical Substance Inventory, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(4) [6]; Water absorbing polymers with NAMW ≥ 10,000 Daltons, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(5) [6]; and Polymers which contain certain perfluoroalkyl moieties consisting of a CF3-or longer chain length, see 40 CFR § 723.250(d)(6) [6].

° "These groups are so categorized because they generally lack reactivity in biological settings"; see EPA (1997) [7]; for discussion, see:

EPA (1995) [5].

There are instances, however, where exempt polymers, as well as non-exempt polymeric substances, may be manufactured, processed, used, etc., in a manner that may create hazards, which are not intrinsic to the polymer per se, but rather on the form of the polymer (e.g., respirable). For example, high-molecular weight (HMW) polymers (i.e., NAMW > 10,000 Daltons) that meet the E2 criteria and are manufactured or used as particles with sizes in the respirable range (i.e., < 10 μ m) represent a class of chemical substances (hereinafter referred to as "HMW polymers") that may cause an inhalation hazards, including lung overload² via a specific mode of action (i.e., impairment of alveolar-macrophage [AM] mediated clearance), as identified in rat inhalation studies, within chemical substances present in the respirable, poorly soluble particulates NCP Chemical Category. The focus on overload has been due to the fact that poor soluble particles appear to produce lung tumors in rats when AM-mediated

² Overload is defined in this article as when the exposure concentration is sufficiently high or the duration sufficiently long to overwhelm AM-mediated clearance.

clearance is over-whelmed and chronic inflammation is present. However, the chemical substances that are provided as analogues within the boundaries for the NCP Chemical Category on respirable, poorly soluble particulates are limited to discrete inorganic substances, including oxides of various metals (*e.g.*, titanium dioxide) or nonmetals (*e.g.*, carbon black). In contrast, HMW polymers consist of the polymeric substance, as well as varying weight fractions of oligomeric material (*e.g.*, < 5 wt% below 1,000 Daltons for polymers meeting the E2 criteria).

The purpose of the present evaluation was to perform a systematic review of the literature to identify available information that would support: (1) establishing physicochemical boundaries for a chemical category on HMW polymers; (2) determining whether specific chemical substances could be used as a first step with identifying points of departure for the members of this category; and (3) establishing a proposed tiered-testing strategy for evaluating new chemical substances that meet the chemical boundaries for this category. In addition, a new approach methodology (NAMs) was

introduced as a tiered-testing strategy that meets the statutory mandate under TSCA to reduce or replace the use of vertebrate animals in the testing of chemical substances.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Systematic Literature Review

An initial literature search was conducted in November 2016, and a supplemental literature search was conducted in April 2018. The details of these reviews, including the search strategies, search terms, search results and Population, Exposure, Comparison, and Outcomes (PECO) criteria used for reviewing results for relevance are provided in the Supporting Information file at "Section 1 Systematic Literature Review". The objective of these reviews was to obtain studies that evaluated potential "lung overload" toxicity, i.e., respiratory tract toxicity of HMW polymers in exposed humans, investigated lower respiratory tract (i.e., the tracheobronchial and alveolar regions) effects in laboratory animals and identified points of departure, or informed the mode of action for these agents at a cellular level (i.e., in vitro studies). In the context of this evaluation, "lung overload" refers to the "type of retained lung burden seen with

excessively high exposures [in rodents] that lead to impairment of AM [alveolar macrophage]-mediated particle clearance" [8]. Since "overload" is manifest differently in experimental animals versus humans [9-13], the literature searches used search strings that were intended to be overly inclusive to identify studies that evaluated "overload" in both experimental animals and humans. A secondary objective was to develop a tiered-testing strategy that minimizes the use of vertebrate animals and can serve as a NAM for this chemical category.

Risk Assessment Approaches Under TSCA

EPA generally uses a margin of exposure (MOE) approach for quantifying potential non-cancer risks in risk assessments on new chemical substances. The MOE is calculated based on a point(s) of departure (POD) divided by the human exposure estimate(s).

The POD is developed from an effect level (*e.g.*, no-observed-adverse-effect concentration [NOAEC], lowest-observed-adverse-effect concentration [LOAEC], or by performing benchmark dose modeling [14, 15]. An adjustment is applied to the POD to account for the exposure conditions under evaluation (*e.g.*, workers = 8 hours/day, 5

days/week) versus the exposure conditions in the experimental study (e.g., 6 hours/day, 5 days/week). The human exposure estimate is typically generated using modeling approaches including the Chemical Screening Tool for Exposures and Environmental Releases (ChemSTEER). ChemSTEER exposure estimates are generated as acute potential dose rates (PDRs) or lifetime average daily doses (LADDs). Given that most new chemical substances usually do not have occupational exposure monitoring data, the PDR is used as an initial conservative exposure estimate when calculating the MOE. For chemical substances in a powder or particulate form, the default PDR values for respirable and total particles are 50 mg/day (i.e., 5 mg/m³) and 150 mg/day (i.e., 15 mg/m³), respectively [16]. However, for chronic effects including lung overload, the LADD represents the more appropriate exposure metric for quantifying potential risks [17]. A summary of the default values used in calculating PDRs and LADDs for new chemical substances in powder or particulate form is provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Default values used for calculating the PDR and LADD.

Description	Equation	Parameter	Defaults	Units
	Cm × b × h	Mass concentration of chemical in air (Cm)	5	mg/m³
PDR (mg/day)		Volumetric inhalation rate	1.25	m³/hr
, and the same of		(b) $(0 < b \le 7.9)$		
		Exposure duration (h)	8	hrs/day
		(0 ≤ h ≤ 24)		
		Inhalation PDR (I)	50	mg/day
		Days exposed per year		days/site-
LADDa	(I × ED × EY) /	(ED) (0 ≤ ED (integer) ≤	250	yr
(mg/kg-	(BW × ATc ×	365)		
bw/day)	365 days/yr)	Years of occupational	40	years
		exposure (EY) (0 ≤ EY)		
		Body weight (BW) (0 ≤	80	kg
		ATc)		

Averaging time over a		
	70	years
lifetime (chronic) (0 ≤ ATc)		

a Note, dosimetric modeling may be applied using models such as Multiple-Path Particle Dosimetry (MPPD) to perform simulations. These simulations may be adjusted to account for the days exposed per year, and when evaluating the years of occupational exposure, preclude the need for averaging exposures over a specified time period (*e.g.*, lifetime) because these types of adjustments are incorporated into the construction of the human equivalent concentration (HEC).

For each of the MOEs calculated in this article, both the PDR and LADD have been provided for comparison. The resulting MOE is compared to a benchmark MOE for characterizing potential risks. If the MOE is lower than the benchmark MOE, potential risks are indicated under TSCA, whereas if the MOE is higher than the benchmark MOE, the chemical substance is considered as not posing a potential risk.

Benchmark MOE Derivation

The benchmark MOE accounts for both uncertainty and variability. In the context of this article, these terms have the same meaning as defined by EPA (2002) [14] and are based on the following considerations: intraspecies (a.k.a., intrahuman) variability (i.e., human-to-human variability or UF_H), interspecies variability (i.e., animal-to-human extrapolation uncertainty or UF_A), and LOAEC-to-NOAEC uncertainty (*i.e.*, uncertainty with extrapolating from a Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Concentration [LOAEC] to a No Observed Adverse Effect Concentration [NOAEC] or UF_L). The default UF values used for calculating the benchmark MOE are 10 for each of the composite uncertainty factors (i.e., $UF_H \times UF_A \times UF_L = 1000$). EPA has developed guidance to improve the science underlying the animal-to-human uncertainty factor, which provides generalized procedures for deriving dosimetric adjustment factors (DAF), which are applied to adjust exposure levels of observed toxicity in the animals and perform interspecies extrapolation [14, 18]. As described below in the section on interspecies extrapolation and overload simulations, application of DAFs to the animal airborne exposure values yields estimates of the concentration in humans, the Human Equivalent Concentration (HEC). For studies with only a LOAEC, EPA recommends benchmark dose modeling be performed

to identify a benchmark dose lower limit value (BMDL), as described in the next section, and thereby reduce the LOAEL-to-NOAEL UF value to 1. Each of these adjustments is discussed below, along with their potential applicability to the available studies that evaluated lung overload from HMW polymers.

Benchmark Dose Modeling

EPA's benchmark dose modeling software (BMDS) is routinely used for evaluating datasets because of its advantages over using the NOAEC/LOAEC approach [15]. When a NOAEC is not available in a study, EPA typically applies a UF_L of 10 to extrapolate from the LOAEC to the NOAEC. However, when datasets are amenable to BMD modeling, the UF_L may be reduced from 10 to 1 because the BMDL is a dose level corresponding to specific response levels near the low end of the observable range of the data and incorporates and conveys more information than the NOAEC or the LOAEC [15]. EPA's BMD software (BMDS ver. 3.1.1) was used for dose-response modeling of dichotomous (*e.g.*, lesion incidence) data. All dichotomous models in the software were considered. A benchmark response (BMR) of 10% extra risk was

selected, model fit evaluated using the $\chi 2$ goodness-of-fit p-value (p > 0.1), magnitude of scaled residuals at concentrations near the BMR, and visual assessment of the model fit as displayed graphically. The BMCL from the model with the lowest Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) was chosen from among all models providing adequate fit, per EPA's guidance [15].

Interspecies Extrapolation and Dosimetry Simulations Demonstrating Overload

It has long been recognized that the external exposure concentration of particles is not the same amount that is inhaled, subsequently deposited and retained, and responsible for potential adverse health effects. Inhaled dose is dictated by particle inhalability and deposition mechanisms that can display regional and anatomical differences in the respiratory tract of experimental animals and humans at different ages. These deposition mechanisms are also influenced by the breathing mode (*e.g.*, oral, nasal, or both), the ventilation tidal volume and breathing rate; and by key physicochemical properties of aerosols including particle size, distribution, density, and hygroscopicity. Clearance mechanisms include dissolution, mucociliary removal, and translocation to the alveolar (pulmonary)

interstitium. Retained dose is a function of the integrated processes of inhalability, deposition, and clearance. Dosimetry³ models have been used for decades to describe the physicochemical and biological determinants of aerodynamic behavior and toxicological responses of inhaled particles. Such models are applied to account for species differences in the complex interactions among the described physicochemical, anatomical and physiological factors to determine inhaled dose metrics relevant to the MOA [19]. Herein, we explore two different available dosimetry models and conduct simulations to demonstrate factors determining overload.

Regional Deposited Dose Ratio (RDDR) Model (U.S. EPA, 1994)

EPA introduced formal dosimetry modeling into its derivation procedures for risk assessment of inhaled materials with its 1994 document entitled "Methods for Derivation"

³ Dosimetry refers to measuring or predicting the amount (*e.g.*, mass, surface area or number) of particles in a specific region of the respiratory tract at a particular point in time. Dose metrics, *e.g.*, deposited or retained mass in a specific region of the respiratory tract normalized to its surface area for portal-of-entry effects, should be constructed to correspond to the MOA of the particle and the observed toxic effect of interest.

of Inhalation Reference Concentrations and Application of Inhalation Dosimetry" [18]. As described above, EPA may apply DAFs to PODs identified from experimental animal studies to calculate an HEC. When applied, the default DAF accounts for the toxicokinetic component of the UF_A and it is thereby reduced from approximately 3 (*i.e.*, 10^{0.5}) to 1, the POD is dosimetrically adjusted to a POD_{HEC} and the UF_A value of approximately 3 accounts for the toxicodynamic component of the UF_A.

To derive a DAF for particle exposures, EPA developed a software program for calculating the regional deposited dose ratio (RDDR), as the DAF for insoluble particles. The RDDR is an empirical model of deposition, applicable to particles in the size range of 0.5-30 µm and calculates an RDDR as the DAF for insoluble particles using the following ratios:

$$RDDR = \frac{V_{E,\,animal}}{V_{E,\,human}} \times \frac{F_{r,\,animal}}{F_{r,\,human}} \times \frac{NF_{human}}{NF_{animal}}$$

These ratios incorporate animal to human adjustments for the following parameters: minute volume (V_E; mL/min), deposition fraction (Fr) of the particle in the regions of respiratory tract (i.e., extrathoracic, tracheobronchial, and pulmonary), and a normalizing factor (NF), such as respiratory tract surface area of the region with the observed toxicity for portal-of-entry effects. The RDDR inputs include mass median aerodynamic diameter (MMAD), geometric standard deviation (σ), and the average bodyweight of the animal from which default V_E and surface areas of the respiratory tract regions are calculated. Human ventilatory parameters and assumptions regarding exposure regimen (e.g., hours/day and lifetime) are analogously used in the model to predict the human deposition fraction with default values for the NF. The RDDR is applied to the duration-adjusted POD, which describes the laboratory animal regimen, to arrive at the PODHEC. Thereafter, the duration adjustment is applied when quantifying the MOE for the population of interest. The RDDR software (version 2.3) was run with the assistance of DOSBox, an opensource and free DOS-emulator [20].

Multiple-Path Particle Dosimetry (MPPD) Model

The MPPD model (version 3.04) developed by Anjilvel and Asgharian (1995) [21] and updated by Miller et al. (2016) [22] is a mechanistic, multipath model that can be used to predict deposition, clearance, and retained lung burden over the course of a long-term exposure, as described by Ladics et al. (2020) [23]. The MPPD model is supported by Applied Research Associates, Inc. (ARA) and is available as freeware. An EPA version of MPPD is anticipated to undergo external peer review for application to Agency assessments late FY20. As with the RDDR model, the MPPD model provides predictions that may be used to calculate a POD_{HEC} for inhaled deposited dose; however, unlike the RDDR model, the MPPD model additionally provides predictions of retained dose that may be more appropriate to characterize chronic effects. The MPPD model also incorporates inhalability⁴, covers a wider size range of particles (0.01 – 100

⁴ Inhalability can be defined as the probability that a particle of a given size will actually enter one of the respiratory tract orifices in the case of non-human primates or humans or enter the nares in the case of rodents that are obligatory nose breathers. Inhalability varies between species and is a critical adjustment for interspecies extrapolation.

μm), and has other added capabilities including the ability to construct simulations of activity patterns with different ventilation parameters within a given day.

To calculate clearance and thereby retained dose, the MPPD model (version 3.04) uses default translocation rates in the alveolar interstitium that were recommended by the International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP) in their 1994 human respiratory tract model [24]. These rates are considered representative of insoluble particles. More recently, the ICRP model and clearance rates have been updated based on improved lung burden data [9, 10, 25]. Refinements may be imparted by chemicalspecific dissolution data and exploration of these new model values. Hygroscopic growth is currently not addressed in either the MPPD or ICRP models; and is not likely to be relevant to this category of inhaled polymers. In rats, MPPD implements a twocompartment pulmonary clearance model where the alveolar clearance rate decreases as alveolar retained mass increases. MPPD predicts the alveolar clearance rate based on an empirical model fit to titanium dioxide retained mass data from 13-week rat exposures. In humans, MPPD implements the ICRP clearance model localized for

individual airways in the pulmonary region. Clearance rates in the ICRP human clearance model are constant and do not vary with alveolar retained mass. Therefore, depression of clearance rates associated with lung overload is incorporated in the MPPD rat model, but not the MPPD human model. Additional uncertainty in the predictions is imparted from the use of lung geometry models for different rat species than used in the experiment, but nonetheless will be shown to fit experimental data well.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Literature Search and Screening Results

The initial literature search identified 257 articles on PubMed. Following title and abstract screening, 28 articles were selected for full text review, and 23 articles were identified using additional search strategies (*e.g.*, tree searching). Of the 51 articles identified for full text review, only 24 articles contained relevant information that satisfied the PECO criteria for lung overload from HMW polymers. In the supplemental literature search, 1218 articles were identified on PubMed and Embase (combined). Title and abstract screening resulted in 46 potentially relevant articles for full text screening. Of

these, 13 were identified as potentially relevant for review; seven of the 13 articles were also identified in the initial literature search. Complete details on the systematic review are provided in the Supporting Information file at "Section 1 Systematic Literature Review".

The information identified in the systematic review was used to inform the inclusion/exclusion criteria in the section on Category Boundaries, to develop the health effects summaries in the section on Hazard Identification, and to identify NAMs to include in the section on Tiered-Testing Strategies.

Category Boundaries

The boundaries for HMW polymers that may present a hazard for lung overload include those that do not meet the exclusion criteria listed under EPA's polymer exemption at 40 CFR § 723.250(d) [6], are respirable (*i.e.*, manufactured, processed, or used in a respirable form), non-reactive, and poorly soluble. Each of these boundary criteria, except for EPA's polymer exclusion criteria, is discussed below. It should be noted that

even if a HMW polymer satisfies the boundary criteria for the category, there may be other hazards under the conditions for use of the chemical substance due to low molecular weight components, residuals, impurities, and/or potential metabolites that are considered, and may ultimately be the critical effect, used to quantify risks.

In humans, respirable particles are those chemical substances with an aerodynamic particle size of less than or equal to 10 μ m. The cutoff of 10 μ m, as defined by EPA in its "Air Quality Criteria for Particulate Matter", represents "particles collected by a sampler with an upper 50% cut point of 10 μ m D_a [aerodynamic diameter] and a specific, fairly sharp, penetration curve" [26]. However, depending on the sampling method and size fraction collected, the sample may contain particles between 10 and 30 μ m diameter that are excluded from the 10 μ m D_a fraction [26].

In comparison, occupational health organizations rely on unified size fraction definitions based on the upper size of particles and entry into the different regions of the respiratory tract. For example, the American Conference of Governmental Industrial

Hygienists (ACGIH) considers 10 µm D_a particles as an upper limit for particles entering the alveolar region [27]. Further, consideration must be given to the particle settling rate. In still air, 10 µm spherical particles with a density of 1 g/cm³ can remain airborne for approximately 8 minutes [28], and as particle size decreases, the airborne settling time increases (e.g., approximately 1.5 hours for 3 µm particles to settle in still air) [27, 28]. Therefore, solids with even a small fraction of respirable particles may produce prolonged and elevated airborne levels of respirable particles in the workplace. Although occupational monitoring data provide assurance that airborne levels of respirable particles do not exceed relevant exposure limits, particle size distribution data are typically the only metric available for estimating potential respirability for new chemical substances. Given this limitation and that solid particulate materials may contain some percentage of respirable particles, a practical screening cutoff is warranted for category inclusion/exclusion.

For the purposes of defining this category, we propose that HMW polymers are considered respirable if they are manufactured, processed, used, *etc.*, in a manner that

generates the new chemical substance with a particle or aerosol size of less than or equal to 10 µm or if respirable particles may be unintentionally generated during the life cycle of the material (*e.g.*, impaction and friction during transport). Under the latter scenarios, materials that contain greater than or equal to 1% respirable particles by weight (wt%) based on particle size distribution data is the practical cutoff for assessing respirable particles and is the same cutoff EPA applies to the nonreportable content of nanoscale materials [29]. The same cutoff would apply to the particle/droplet size distribution for aerosols of a solid or liquid chemical substance and would be determined based on droplet size data for the material and/or liquid application method (*e.g.*, spray, aerosol, mist).

EPA's Functional Group (FG) and Functional Group Equivalent Weight (FGEW) criteria for E1 polymers provide a starting point for evaluating the potential reactivity and/or cytotoxicity of HMW polymers. Therefore, we propose using these criteria as an initial screen for determining whether a HMW polymer is considered non-reactive and included or reactive and excluded from the category. As shown in Table 1, the E1

polymer exemption criteria include low-concern, moderate-concern, or high-concern FGs. Representative FGs meeting each of these hazard concern levels is shown in Figure 1.

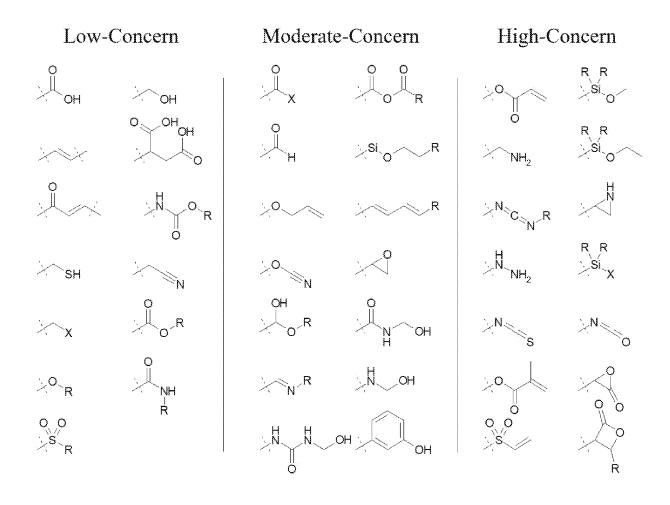


Figure 1. FG hazard concern levels for polymeric substances meeting EPA's E1 polymer exemption criteria. The FGs shown above are representative alerts for identifying a HMW polymer as non-reactive (low concern)/reactive (moderate or high

concern) for the HMW polymer category. The following cutoffs are proposed as the category boundaries for establishing that a HMW polymer is non-reactive: low-concern FGs (no limit), moderate-concern FGs (FGEW ≥ 1,000), or high-concern FGs (FGEW ≥ 5,000). "R" represents an undefined structure; "X" represents a halide. See: EPA (1997) [7] for further details.

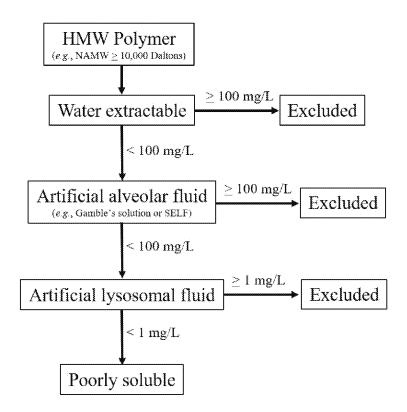
A property of respirable, low reactive (*i.e.*, low toxicity) particles that may cause lung overload is the poorly soluble nature of these compounds. EPA has published general water solubility classifications, which include: negligible solubility (*i.e.*, < 0.1 mg/L), slight solubility (*i.e.*, > 0.1 - 100 mg/L), moderate solubility (*i.e.*, > 100 - 1,000 mg/L), soluble (> 1,000 - 10,000 mg/L), and very soluble (> 10,000 mg/L) [30]. These values were not established for evaluating the solubility of particles for lung overload; however, they may be used as conservative cutoffs for extractability, per OECD TG 120 [31], for measuring the insolubility/solubility of HMW polymers. ECETOC (2013) [32] proposed an initial biosolubility screening approach that provided qualitative determinants (*i.e.*, "soluble", "insoluble", "Low dissolution rate", or "Very high dissolution rate") for assessing

biosolubility; however, no quantitative thresholds were provided. In comparison, the International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP) and the German Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (FIOSH) provided quantitative biosolubility cutoffs. ICRP describes three categories of soluble radiological materials: Fast (all material rapidly dissolves at a rate of 100 day⁻¹), Moderate (10% of the material dissolves rapidly and the rest dissolves at a rate of 0.005 day⁻¹), and Slow (0.1% of the material dissolves rapidly and the rest dissolves at a rate of 0.0001 day⁻¹) [24]. FIOSH proposed a simulated solubility threshold of ≤ 1 mg/L in artificial lung fluids for identifying particles as "low soluble dusts" [33].

As discussed above, the screening particle size cutoff and percentage of respirable particles for inclusion in this HMW polymer category are ≤ 10 µm and ≥ 1 wt%, respectively. These criteria are readily determinable based on the intended use and life cycle of the HMW polymer. However, determining whether a HMW polymer is "poorly soluble" and a potential hazard concern for lung overload is also dependent on the potential daily exposure estimates. Therefore, we propose using the inclusion/exclusion

cutoffs shown in Scheme 1, which consider water extractability or biosolubility and the legally binding permissible exposure limit (PEL), as mandated by the U.S. Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) for respirable particulates not otherwise regulated (PNOR) (*i.e.*, 5 mg/m³).

Scheme 1. Screening criteria for determining water extractability and biosolubility.

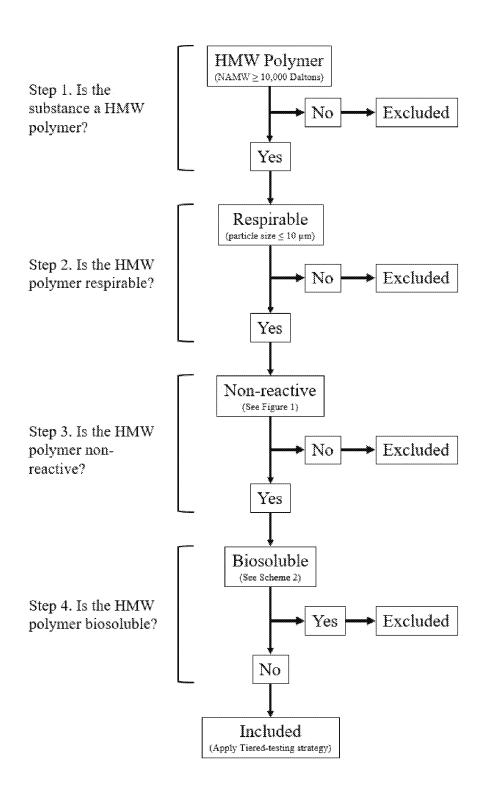


The proposed cutoffs shown in Scheme 1 are based on the following considerations. The first step is water extractability using the cutoff for moderately water-soluble substances. While the screen is intended to identify insoluble (i.e., non-extractable) HMW polymers, the EPA water solubility classifications were not specifically established to identify potential hazards related to lung overload and have not been correlated with either biosolubility or biopersistence. Therefore, EPA's cutoff for moderate water solubility (i.e., 100 mg/L) was selected, since it is expected to be conservatively inclusive and to overestimate the insolubility of polymers in biological fluids. In the second step, biosolubility cutoffs are either 100 mg/L or 1 mg/L, depending on the test system used (e.g., simulated epithelial lung fluid or artificial alveolar macrophage lysosomal fluid). These values account for the biosolubility of the HMW polymer, as well as the OSHA PNOR PEL of 5 mg/m³ (i.e., 50 mg/day; 5 mg/m³ \times 10 m³/day) for the respirable fraction, defined based on size selective characteristics as particles smaller than 10 µm aerodynamic diameter. The biosolubility cutoff of approximately 100 mg/L/day for a polymer in simulated epithelial lung fluid equates to a mean dissolution rate of approximately 72 mg/day in humans, based on an estimated daily alveolar fluid

turnover of 0.72 L [34]. The second value is based on the German FIOSH biosolubility cutoff of 1 mg/L for granular biopersistent particles. We propose application of this cutoff as a surrogate for estimating the biosolubility HMW polymers in the lysosomes of alveolar macrophages (*e.g.*, artificial lysosomal fluid).

The above screening criteria for respirability, reactivity, and biosolubility provide a framework for determining inclusion/exclusion from the HMW polymer category, as shown in Scheme 2. The screening criteria may be used for determining whether further evaluation of the new chemical substance is warranted using the tiered-testing strategy discussed later in this document.

Scheme 2. Framework for determining whether a chemical substance is included/excluded from the HMW polymer category.



Based on the above information, the HMW polymer category was defined to include a variety of respirable, non-reactive (i.e., low toxicity), and poorly soluble HMW (i.e., > 10,000 Daltons) materials, which meet the criteria for these parameters. HMW polymers are typically formed through various polymerization processes, include branched and linear polymers, as well as co-polymers produced by random, block, graft, or other techniques. Crosslinked polymers were included in the category because crosslinking can decrease water solubility, but crosslinking was not necessary for inclusion. Therefore, the representative members of this category were refined to include polyacrylates/methacrylates, polyvinyl polymers, polyamides, and polyurethanes/polyureas. The water-dispersible forms polyacrylates/metacrylates and polyurethanes/polyureas would not present hazards for lung overload and are not included in the HMW polymer category [35, 36]; however, despite their exclusion from the category, they would need to be assessed for other potential hazard concerns. A summary of the structural features of these chemical substances and the chemical boundaries that were established is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Representative members of the HMW polymer category. Structure A, on the left, is representative of polyacrylate/methacrylate members, where R is H or methyl; R' and R" are typically alkyl or substituted alkyl, although there are currently no limits on the substituents. However, charged groups such as carboxyl groups or amine groups would tend to make the polymer dispersible in water rather than insoluble in water. R' may be the same as R" or different. This example represents a polymer containing one or two monomers, although sub-category members may comprise any number of monomers. Acrylamide and methacrylamide monomers (NR'2 replaces OR' or OR") may also be present. Structure B, on the right, is representative of polyvinyl members, where

R is H or C1-C > 20. R' is typically methyl, CN, acetyloxy, Ph or Cl, although there are no current limits on R'. R' may be the same as R" or different. This example represents a polymer containing one or two monomers, although sub-category members may comprise any number of monomers. Copolymers (e.g., including both acrylate/methacrylate and vinyl monomers) are also members of this category.

Structure C, on the bottom, is representative of the polyamides group and is made of condensation polymers in which the linkages are all amide functional groups. An example is polycaprolactam, shown.

Hazard Identification

TSCA and its implementing regulations do not require upfront testing on new chemical substances. Therefore, when assessing new chemical substances, EPA generally identifies toxicological analogues to inform the potential hazards for the new chemical substances. The systematic review of the literature was used to identify inhalation studies that assessed endpoints indicative of "overload" for potential toxicological analogues. For the purpose of defining this chemical category, overload has the same

definition as identified by EPA (1996) [37]: "This is defined as the overwhelming of macrophage-mediated clearance by the deposition of particles at a rate which exceeds the capacity of that clearance pathway. It is a nonspecific effect noted in experimental studies, generally in rats, using many different kinds of poorly soluble particles (including TiO₂, volcanic ash, diesel exhaust particles, carbon black, and fly ash) and results in A [alveolar] region clearance slowing or stasis, with an associated inflammation and aggregation of macrophages in the lungs and increased translocation of particles into the interstitium." The relevant studies are summarized below, followed by the selection of studies on toxicological analogues that may serve as representative points of departure for assessing the potential hazard for overload for new chemical substances.

Human Data

The hazard concerns discussed are limited to chronic effects in the pulmonary (alveolar) region of rats exposed to HMW polymers. Epidemiological studies have shown increased lung burdens in workers chronically exposed to poorly soluble particles

(PSPs), such as former coal miners; however, studies with rodent models overpredict lung burdens in humans if adjustments are not made for kinetic differences in clearance and retention [11, 12]. This is consistent with findings from well-conducted epidemiological studies, which have not identified an association between occupational exposure to PSPs and an increased cancer risk. Oberdorster (1995) [38] concluded that "evidence in humans suggest that particle-overloaded lungs, e.g., in coal workers, respond with fibrosis, but no increased incidence in lung tumors has been found in this group". It has also been reported that "epidemiological data from production workers demonstrate no correlation between PSP exposure and lung cancer or other non-malignant respiratory diseases" [39]. Though these investigations focused on PSPs, the available, yet limited data on HMW polymers provide comparable results. For example, in a recent retrospective study of Xerox workers employed between 1960 and 1982, workers exposed to toner did not show an increased risk of "all-cause" or "cause-specific" mortality. The categories evaluated included cancer (e.g., lung), diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and others [40]. Aside from this one epidemiological study on toner exposures, the evaluation of exposures to HMW polymers were limited to inhalation studies conducted in experimental animals as summarized below and described in further detail in Section 2 "Experimental Animal Inhalation Studies on HMW Polymers" of the Supplemental Information file.

Animal Data - Noncancer Effects

Inhalation studies performed in rats and hamsters have demonstrated effects ranging from inflammation to fibrosis after inhalation exposure to several HMW polymers including print toners comprised largely of styrene/butylmethacrylate copolymer and polyvinyl chloride dust. Several of these studies were conducted according to validated test guidelines and under good laboratory practice (GLP) standards, and in some cases published in the peer-reviewed literature. A summary of these studies is provided below.

A series of sub-chronic and chronic studies were performed to test the inhalation effects of a water-insoluble styrene/butylmethacrylate polymer (the primary component of toner used in copy machines) of MW 70,000 in rats. In a subchronic 13-week study, rats were exposed to aerosol concentrations of toner at 0, 1, 4, 16, and 64 mg/m³ (MMAD = 4 μ m; GSD = 1.5; density = 1.15 g/cm³) for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week. Dose-related increased lung weight and histological lesions (thickening of alveolar structure due to hypertrophy and hyperplasia of Type II cells) were seen in animals exposed to 16 and 64 mg/m³.

These exposure concentrations also resulted in a dose-related decrease in lung

clearance, as measured by the retained quantity of the test substance in excised lungs, and increased lung particle burden [41]. The NOAEC from this study was 4 mg/m³.

Bellmann et al. (1992) [42] performed an additional 13-week study using the same test substance as Muhle et al. (1990) [41] and included an extended 15-month postexposure monitoring period. Rats were exposed to aerosol concentrations of toner at 0, 10, or 40 mg/m³ (MMAD = 4 μ m; GSD = 1.5; density = 1.15 g/cm³) for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week. The study authors measured retention of the toner in the lungs and lungassociated lymph nodes (LALN) by photometric determination in dissolved tissues; clearance was monitored using tracer particles, and pulmonary effects were identified from enzymatic activities and differential cell counts in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF). The study authors identified clearance half-lives of 277 and 2,845 days for the low- and high-dose exposure groups, respectively, and reported pulmonary effects, as evidenced by increases in protein and enzyme markers of tissue damage in BALF that were partially reversible at 10 mg/m³ and not reversible at 40 mg/m³ [42].

Muhle *et al.* (1991) [43] and Bellmann *et al.* (1991) [44] reported findings from a chronic 24-month exposure study in rats exposed to toner at aerosol concentrations of 0, 1, 4, or 16 mg/m³ (MMAD = 4 μm; GSD = 1.5; density = 1.15 g/cm³) for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week. The study was performed according to OECD No. 453 Combined Chronic Toxicity/Carcinogenicity Studies under GLP standards. The study authors reported dose-related impaired particle clearance, elevated lung particle burden, and lung effects (fibrosis, BALF markers of tissue damage, and increased lung weight) at 4 and 16 mg/m³, with a NOAEC of 1 mg/m³.

Unpublished subchronic (3 months) and chronic (18 months) hamster studies of the same print toner tested by Muhle *et al.* (1990, 1991) and Bellman *et al.* (1991, 1992) [41-44] showed similar effects to those in rats [45-47]. The unpublished 3-month study was hampered by disease and mortality unrelated to treatment. In the unpublished 18-month study, the hamsters were exposed to concentrations of 0, 1.5, 6, or 24 mg/m³ for the first 5 months and then concentrations of 0, 4, 16, or 64 mg/m³ for the remaining test period. At all exposure concentrations, the hamsters exhibited macrophage

accumulation, interstitial inflammatory cell infiltration, and bronchiolar/alveolar hyperplasia, along with particle deposits and lymphatic hyperplasia in the LALNs. At the mid- and high-exposure concentrations, fibrosis and alveolar PMN infiltration were noted at the end of exposure and/or after the 5 month post-exposure recovery period; the highest exposure group also exhibited increased lung weight and effects on BALF parameters (increased cell number, macrophage count, LDH, β glucuronidase, total protein, and hydroxyproline). The LOAEC for this study was in the range of 1.5 to 4 mg/m³.

Muhle *et al.* (1990) [48] performed an eight-month inhalation study in rats exposed to an aerosol of PVC powder at 0, 3.3, 8.3, or 20.2 mg/m³ (MMAD = 1.3 μm; GSD = 2.07; density = 1.3 g/cm³) for 5 hours/day, 5 days/week. Retention, clearance, and pulmonary effects were evaluated, as reported previously by these same authors. Using radiolabeled (85Sr) polystyrene particles as tracers, these authors showed that pulmonary clearance was significantly decreased in rats after seven months of exposure (25 hours per week) to PVC powder at concentrations ≥ 3.3 mg/m³. Mean

alveolar clearance half-times increased with exposure from 1.2-fold higher than controls to 3.2-fold higher than controls at concentrations from 3.3 to 20.2 mg/m³. The study authors calculated half-times for alveolar clearances of 71, 122, and 184 days at exposure concentrations of 3.3, 8.3, and 20.2 mg/m³, respectively, supporting that lung overload occurred at concentrations ≥ 3.3 mg/m³ for this water-insoluble polymer.

Animal Data - Cancer

Chronic inhalation exposure data specifically pertaining to HMW polymers are limited to a 24-month rat study of print toner and an 18-month hamster study of print toner [43].

No increase in the incidence of tumors was observed in either study; however, interstitial and alveolar lung pathology has been documented in long-term inhalation studies on these polymers. See section on "Animal Data - Noncancer Effects" above.

Supporting Information

An *in vitro* study was identified and reviewed that may be relevant for determining the reactivity/non-reactivity of HMW polymers that do not meet the initial FG and/or FGEW screening criteria.

Wiemann et al. (2016) [49] developed an in vitro assay to test nanoparticles for predicting biologically active from passive (i.e., overload condition) toxicity. The assay used rat NR8383 alveolar macrophages in cell culture medium incubated with test material to assess toxicity via measurement of LDH, glucuronidase, and tumor necrosis factor α (TNFα) (after 16 hours exposure), and hydrogen peroxide (after 1.5 hours). The authors tested 18 inorganic nanomaterials using the assay, as well as corundum as a negative control and quartz DQ12 as a positive control. The size and shape of the test substances ranged from 9 nm to <30 µm and from 15 m²/g to 200 m²/g. Based on data from short term inhalation studies, each test material was categorized as either active (NOAEC <10 mg/m³ for adverse inflammatory action in a 5-day inhalation study) or passive (i.e., inducing nonspecific cell overload). The in vitro assay used a particle surface area-based threshold of <6000 mm²/mL (calculated as particle or agglomerate

Brunauer Teller and Emmett [BET] surface area × mass concentration in µg/mL) to determine the biological relevance of the lowest observed significant in vitro effects in at least two of the four measured parameters. The results for the nanomaterials showed good correlation between the *in vitro* and *in vivo* parameters (assay accuracy 95%), suggesting that, the assay could be useful in distinguishing specific ("active") toxicity from nonspecific ("passive" or overload) effects on alveolar macrophages. Although only nanoparticles were tested by these authors, this assay may be useful for screening out HMW polymers for inclusion/exclusion in the category, e.g., those identified as "active" would be inconsistent with the low-concern level and inclusion in the category, whereas those identified as "passive" appear to be consistent with inclusion. Additionally, this assay could be useful for screening polymers with specific toxicities (i.e., excluded from overload category) prior to in vivo testing of "overload" for passive polymers.

Quantitative Points of Departure (PODs)

A single epidemiological study of inhaled HMW polymers was identified - the retrospective study of Xerox workers [40]. This study did not report exposure

concentrations associated with the evaluated health outcomes and is therefore not useful for determining quantitative PODs for pulmonary effects of HMW polymers.

A summary of animal studies documenting pulmonary effects after exposure to HMW polymers and the PODs identified from them is provided in Table 3. The PODs presented in the table include those from studies meeting the following criteria:

- Exposure was in vivo via inhalation (in vitro, intratracheal instillation studies were not included);
- Exposure continued for at least 13 weeks; and
- Critical study information was reported, including exposure concentrations,
 exposure regimen, and aerodynamic particle size (MMAD, GSD, and density).

Each study was evaluated to determine whether the data were amenable for BMD modeling.

Several subchronic studies, for the polyacrylates and methacrylates subcategory that met the initial POD selection criteria, are included in Table 3; however, BMD modeling was not performed on these studies because chronic studies were available and considered more relevant for hazard assessment with identifying health protective PODs. Two chronic studies met the POD selection criteria: the published 24-month rat study of 9000 type toner and the unpublished 18-month hamster study of the same toner [43, 46, 50, 51]. BMD modeling was performed on the rat study performed by Muhle et al. (1991) [43] because it used a longer exposure duration, was published in a peer-reviewed journal, and did not change exposure concentrations during the study. The hamster study modified the exposure concentrations after the first five months. The endpoints affected at the LOAEC in the rat study (macrophages, PMN, and lymphocytes in BAL; incidence of pulmonary fibrosis), only the incidence of fibrosis could be modeled, as the BALF parameters were reported without measures of variability (i.e., standard deviation or standard error). The incidences of lung fibrosis (summed across severity categories) were subjected to BMD modeling, as described in Section 3

"Benchmark Dose (BMD) Modeling Outputs" of the Supplemental Information file. The BMCL from the best-fitting model was 2.5 mg/m³, as shown in Table 3.

Only a single study was available for the polyvinyl subcategory; however, BMD modeling on the alveolar clearance for the tracer was not possible because of the absence of reported measures of variability (Table 3).

Table 3. Available PODs for inhalation studies on HMW Polymers.

Test material	Strain, Species, Sex, Exposure frequency and duration, Recovery	Exposure Concentrations (mg/m³)	NOAEC (mg/m³)	LOAEC (mg/m³)	BMCL (mg/m³)	Lung Effects at LOAEC	Reference
Polyacrylates ar	nd Methacrylates Sub-car	tegory					
9000 Toner (styrene/butylm ethacrylate random copolymer)	SPF F344 rats, male and female (288/group); 24 months (6 hr/d, 5 d/wk), 2 months recovery	0, 1, 4, or 16	1	4	2.5 (fibrosis	Significantly decreased macrophages and increased PMN and lymphocytes in BAL; significantly increased incidence of minimal to mild pulmonary fibrosis	[43, 44, 46, 50]
9000 Toner (styrene/butylm ethacrylate random copolymer)	Syrian Golden Han:AURA Hamster, male and female, (50/group); 18 months (6 hr/d, 5 d/wk); 3-5 mo. recovery	0, 1.5, 6, or 24 (months 1-5); 0, 4, 16, or 64 (months 6-18)	ND	1.5-4	variable exposur e	Significantly increased incidences of bronchiolar/alveolar hyperplasia (males); accumulation particle-laden macrophages in lungs; interstitial inflammatory cell infiltration in lungs (males); lymphatic hyperplasia in LALN (males); and particle deposits in LALN	[51]
Toner A (styrene/butylm ethacrylate random copolymer)	F344/CrlBR rat, female, (58-66/group); 3 months (6 hr/d, 5 d/wk); up to 6 mo. recovery	0, 4, 16, or 64	ND	4	Not derived	Significantly increased incidence slight to moderate accumulation of particle-laden macrophages in lungs	[45]

Table 3. Available PODs for inhalation studies on HMW Polymers.

Test material	Strain, Species, Sex, Exposure frequency and duration, Recovery	Exposure Concentrations (mg/m³)	NOAEC (mg/m³)	LOAEC (mg/m³)	BMCL (mg/m³)	Lung Effects at LOAEC	Reference
9000 Toner (styrene/butylm ethacrylate random copolymer)	SPF F344 rat, female (≥18/group); 3 months (6 hr/d, 5 d/wk), 15 months recovery	0, 10, or 40	ND	10	Not derived	Significantly decreased alveolar clearance	[42]
9000 Toner (styrene/butylm ethacrylate random copolymer)	SPF F344 rat, male and female (56- 74/sex/group); 3 months (6 hr/d, 5 d/wk), 3 months recovery	0, 1, 4, 16, or 64	4	16	Not derived	Significantly increased relative lung weight in males; histopathology showed a few particles in alveolar walls and a slight degree of thickening of the alveolar structure due to hypertrophy and hyperplasia of Type II cells and accumulation of a few interstitial cells; slightly enlarged LALN; decreased alveolar clearance	[41]
Toner B (styrene/ butadiene random copolymer)		0, 1, 4, 16, or 64	4	16	Not derived	Significantly increased incidence very slight to slight focal/multifocal interstitial inflammatory cell infiltration in lungs	[52]

Table 3. Available PODs for inhalation studies on HMW Polymers.

Test material	Strain, Species, Sex, Exposure frequency and duration, Recovery	Exposure Concentrations (mg/m³)	NOAEC (mg/m³)		BMCL (mg/m³)	Lung Effects at LOAEC	Reference
Polyvinyl chloride Powder	reported: 8 months (25	0, 3.3, 8.3 or 20.2	ND	3.3	ĺ	Significantly decreased alveolar clearance; and dose-dependent increase in PMNs at 8 months.	[48]

Study Selection for establishing sub-category points of departure (PODs)

In rats, the key events in the development of lung tumors in response to inhalation of inorganic PSPs of low toxicity (as outlined by ECETOC 2013 [32], Bevan *et al.*, 2018 [53], Driscoll and Borm, 2020 [54]) are: (1) impaired pulmonary clearance, (2) persistent neutrophilic inflammation, (3) increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS), and (4) proliferation of cells initiated by secondary genotoxicity (from ROS, RNS, and/or inflammation) and tumor formation.

Though the key events for lung overload from HMW polymers have not been thoroughly studied, the available data suggests that HMW polymers may lead to lung overload in the rat through similar key events. It should be noted that cytotoxicity to macrophages by a poorly soluble HMW polymer or components present in the polymer may negatively impact clearance *via* alveolar macrophages. However, substances with these properties (*i.e.*, cytotoxicity) would not be included within the boundaries for the HMW polymers category.

Of the studies listed in Table 3, PODs of 2.5 mg/m³ and 3.3 mg/m³ were identified for the polyacrylates/methacrylates sub-category and the polyvinyls sub-category, respectively. The 24-month study on the 9000 Toner with a BMCL₁₀ of 2.5 mg/m³ for pulmonary fibrosis was selected as a principle study for polyacrylates/methacrylates because it was the longest duration study and was conducted in the most susceptible species for lung overload (i.e., the rat). Muhle et al. (1990) [48] was selected as a principle study for identifying a LOAEC of 3.3 mg/m³ for the polyvinyls sub-category because it was based on decreased alveolar clearance, which is the first key event in the proposed adverse outcome pathway for lung overload from PSPs in the rat [32, 53]. These study PODs represent potential starting points for evaluating new chemical substances that fit within one of the HMW polymer sub-categories. EPA may determine that either of these PODs is an acceptable toxicological analogue for chemistries that do not fit within the sub-categories but are anticipated to have a potential for lung overload in the rat than the new chemical substance under evaluation. For example, EPA generally uses the POD of 3.3 mg/m³ for quantifying the potential risks of HMW

polymers, even for chemistries that would not fall within the polyvinyls sub-category, based on the properties of the new chemical substance. Notwithstanding this, we recognize that data on a new chemical substance or an alternative analogue would take precedence over using one of these analogues as the default POD, if EPA concludes there are no study limitations on the new chemical substance or alternative analogue that would preclude the use of those data.

Due to the limited data on HMW polymers, available knowledge about inorganic PSPs was used to make inferences about HMW polymers. Compared to systemic effects, lung overload responses to inorganic PSPs show large variations in susceptibility between and among mammalian species, with the rat being the only species to develop lung tumors [32]. This species-specific response has been explained by species differences in the accumulation of insoluble and respirable particles in the lungs, although cytotoxicity is also an issue with some inorganic PSPs (*e.g.*, crystalline silica). Humans are at least six times more resistant to attaining lung overload conditions than rats for the following reasons: human alveolar macrophages (AMs) are larger (*i.e.*,

average volume = 4,990 µm³) than rat AMs (*i.e.*, average volume = 1,166 µm³); humans have a greater number of AMs (*i.e.*, average = 7.0 × 10°) than rats (*i.e.*, average = 2.6 × 10°); and human AMs patrol a smaller surface area (*i.e.*, average = 22,000 µm²/AM) than rat AMs (*i.e.*, average = 140,000 µm²/AM) [36, 55]. Further, the site of retention for poorly soluble particles differs between rats and humans. Nikula *et al.* (2001) [56] showed that "the relative amounts of intraluminal and interstitial particle load differ markedly between rats and humans with particles being found predominantly in the interstitium in man and intra-luminarly in rats." In rats, accumulation of particulate matter in the intraluminal space leads to adverse "alveolar epithelial hyperplastic, inflammatory, and septal fibrotic responses" [32].

As noted previously, EPA generally uses the polyvinyls sub-category analogue (*i.e.*, PVC powder) POD of 3.3 mg/m³ for evaluating new chemical substances that may present a lung overload hazard when the chemical properties are comparable. The polyvinyls sub-category POD is then subject to the established EPA dosimetry adjustment. Each of these approaches is discussed below. These dosimetric

adjustments may also be applied to the polyacrylates/methacrylates sub-category analogue (9000 Toner), as well as to data on new chemical substances or other potential analogues that fit within the chemical boundaries for this category.

As shown in Table 4, the RDDRs for the PVC powder ranged from 0.501 in the pulmonary region (PU) to 2.248 in the tracheobronchial (TB) region. Since the effects occurred in the PU region, the PU (surface area: 0.34 m² [rat]; 54 m² [human]) RDDR was used for deriving a POD_{HEC}, as follows:

$$POD_{HEC} = POD \times RDDR_{PU}$$

or

$$POD_{HEC} = 3.3 \text{ mg/m}^3 \times 0.5 = 1.65 \text{ mg/m}^3$$

Table 4. Deposition fractions and RDDRs for rats and humans.ª

	Extrathoracic (ET)		Tracheobronchial (TB)		Pulmonary (PU)		Thoracic (TB + PU)		Total Respiratory Tract (RT)	
SPECIES	Surface Area (cm²)	Deposition Fraction	Surface Area (cm²)	Deposition Fraction	Surface Area (m²)	Deposition Fraction	Surface Area (m²)	Deposition Fraction	Surface Area (m²)	Deposition Fraction
Rat	15	0.33	22.5	0.068	0.34	0.061	0.342	0.129	0.344	0.459
Human	200	0.24	3200	0.059	54	0.267	54.32	0.125	54.34	0.566
RDD	0.075	1.373	0.007	1.15	0.006	0.229	0.006	1.028	0.006	0.811
RDDR	0.252		2.248		0.501		0.863		1.763	

^a Input values included: MMAD = 1.30; GSD = 2.07; density = 1.3 g/cm³.

In comparison, the MPPD model was used to conduct simulations to predict retained mass burden in the PU region of female F344 rats exposed in the Muhle et al. (1990) [48] study. The geometry model in the MPPD software for the Sprague-Dawley rat was used, but with the Agency default body weight (BW) of 229 grams for female F-344 rats in a chronic study [18]. The MPPD software internally scales ventilation parameters and respiratory volumes based on BW, so this resulted in tidal volume (V_T) of 1.54, a breathing frequency of 166 bpm, functional residual capacity (FRC) of 3.01 mL, and an upper respiratory tract (URT) volume of 0.34 mL. The 229 g rat PU surface area is predicted to be 1997 cm². The particle MMAD, GSD of the particle size distribution, and its density were: 1.3 µm, 2.07, and 1.3 g/cm³, respectively. The regimen and duration of the nose-only exposure in the Muhle et al. (1990) [48] study was 5 h/d and 5 d/w for 8 months and was used in the simulation. We note that there were discrepancies in the reported duration of exposure of 7 months versus 8 months in Muhle et al. (1990) [48]. However, the Bellmann et al. (1986) [57] abstract consistently reported an 8-month exposure duration; therefore, a duration of 8-months was used.

Using the above experimental conditions, the predicted retained mass in the PU region of F344 rats, shown in Figure 3, demonstrated the goodness of fit of the MPPD model to the experimental data reported by Muhle et al. (1990) [48]. For example, Muhle et al. (1990) [48] reported a retained PU mass of 0.56 mg in rats exposed to 3.3 mg/m³; the MPPD model predicted a retained PU mass of 0.63 mg at this exposure concentration. Additional simulations were conducted using the same three exposure concentration as Muhle et al. (1990) [48], but the key input parameters for MMAD, GSD, and density were varied and bounded. Details on the additional simulations are provided under "Section 4 MPPD Modeling Outputs" of the Supporting Information file. These additional simulations reinforce that prediction of overload kinetics is specific to the particle physicochemical properties (size, distribution, and density) and experimental regimen. Such simulation demonstrations can be useful to defining whether a given particle and exposure conditions achieve overload.

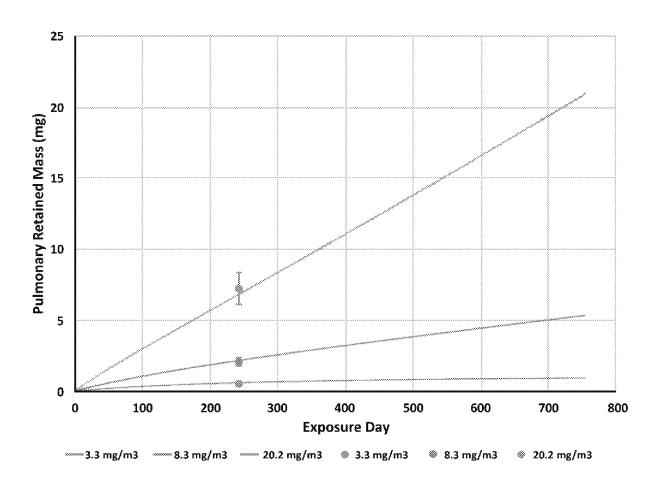


Figure 3. MPPD predictions for retained PU mass in F344 rats under the exposure conditions for the Muhle et al. (1990) [48] study. Simulations were performed to characterize the 8-month study with a particle MMAD size of 1.3 μm, a GSD of 2.07, and a density of 1.3 g/cm³ for three concentrations (3.3, 8.3, and 20.2 mg/m³). Experimental data for PU burdens are shown as solid circles with standard deviation and the predictions as solid lines for different concentrations.

For extrapolation of the predicted rat retained PU mass to an HEC, human simulations were conducted for adult males with a V_T of 0.992 L and a breathing frequency of 21 bpm, or with 1.364 L and 33 bpm. These ventilatory values are from the ICRP (1994) [24] and represent ventilation associated with activity levels of either light exercise or heavy exercise for adult males. It should be noted that this combination of V_T and bpm for the light exercise ventilation input parameters are equivalent to the default minute ventilation value (V_E) found in Table 2 of 1.25 m³/hr. An occupational exposure duration of 40 years was simulated for the human predictions of retained mass in the PU region.

The dose metric used to operationally derive the HEC is the PU retained mass (mg) normalized to the PU surface area (SA) in cm² according to the established US EPA methods [18]. The MPPD model estimates a human pulmonary surface area of 66.3 m² for an 80 kg adult male. As shown in Table 5, simulations were performed iteratively to arrive at an HEC that achieved the same internal dose metric (PU mass / PU SA) in humans as was achieved in rats under the experimental conditions reported by Muhle *et al.* (1990) [48]. As was shown in Figure 3, the predicted retained mass in the PU region

corresponds well with the observed experimental data. The last two rows of Table 5 demonstrate the difference in HEC value due to variation in ventilatory parameters associated with either light or heavy activity.

Table 5. MPPD predictions and HEC calculations for Muhle *et al.* (1990) study of F344 rats exposed to PVC with a particle MMAD of 1.3 μ m, GSD of 2.07 and density of 1.3 gm / cm³.

Exposure Concentration (mg/m³)	3.3	8.3	20.2
Experimental Rat Retained PU Mass (mg)	0.56±0.16	2.09±0.29	7.24±1.10
Predicted Rat Retained PU Mass (mg)	0.63	2.21	6.88
Predicted Rat Retained PU Mass / PU SA (mg/m²)	2.8	10.5	36.3
Light Activity 40-Year HEC (mg/m³)	0.33	1.23	4.25
Heavy Activity 40-Year HEC (mg/m³)	0.14	0.53	1.84

HEC = human equivalent concentration that results in the same inhaled dose metric (retained PU mass / PU SA) as predicted for the rat. The human ventilatory parameters of the light and heavy activity levels for simulation of 40-year occupational scenario are described in the text.

Category benchmark margin of exposure (MOE)

EPA currently applies a benchmark MOE of 1,000 to the PVC powder POD of 3.3 mg/m³. The composite UF consists of default values of 10 for UF_H, UF_A, and UF_L. This default approach was initially established as a conservative means of evaluating new chemistries on HMW polymers, which were anticipated to present a hazard concern for lung overload. Several refinements to these values may be made. The TK and TD components of the UF_A value and reducing the UF_L. Dosimetric adjustments using the RDDR model or the MPPD model, as discussed above, may be applied to calculate a POD_{HEC}, thereby reducing the TK component of the UF_A to 1. Since lung overload is a chronic effect that is manifested primarily based on the retained dose in the PU region, the RDDR model is not necessarily the most appropriate for deriving a POD_{HFC}, given that deposition is a more relevant metric for short-term effects/exposures. However, the RDDR model was used to provide comparative estimates of the MOE to the respective benchmark MOE, given that the RDDR model is recommended in EPA guidance as the default for quantifying PODHECs for particles. For the TD component, a reduced value of 1 may be applied based on the proposal from the ILSI Workshop Consensus Report on rat lung response to particle overload, which stated: "For both neoplastic and fibrogenic endpoints in the rat, associated with PSP exposures, the work group proposed that the TD component of the interspecies UF be reduced from a factor of 3 to 1, given that chronic active inflammation in the rat appears to be a more sensitive response than in other species, including humans" [58]. The UF_L may be reduced from 10 to 1 for the PVC powder analogue POD because default application of this UF is for apical endpoints, rather than initial key events in an adverse outcome pathway. This approach is consistent with EPA (2002) [14], which states that the UF_L "may be altered, depending on the magnitude and nature of the response at the LOAEL". . Based on the foregoing considerations, the following values are proposed for deriving the benchmark MOE for HMW polymers, which are generally applicable regardless of whether the POD is derived from an analogue or a new chemical substance.

 UF_H = 10: The default value of 10 should be applied, unless there are human data showing which age groups or time periods are the most sensitive to lung overload. This approach is consistent with EPA's guidance for reducing the default UF_H [14].

 UF_A = 3 or 1: A reduced value of 1 should be applied for the TD component based on the consideration documented by Olin (2000). In addition, if the data are amenable for deriving a POD_{HEC} , the dosimetric adjustment for the TK component further supports reducing this UF [14, 18].

UF_L = 10 or 1: A value of 1 should be applied when the POD is based on a study NOAEC or when BMD modeling is applied to derive a BMCL, per EPA guidance [15]. The default value of 10 should be applied when the POD is based on a study LOAEC; however, a reduced value may be used, when the LOAEC is based on key event 1 from the proposed adverse outcome pathway for PSPs. Reductions in the UF_L based on other key events should be made on a case-by-case basis and supported by discussion of the key event within the context of an established AOP.

The default and dosimetrically adjusted PODs and benchmark MOEs derived on new chemical substance risk assessments are used to inform risk management options for addressing potential risks. Therefore, values derived using dosimetric adjustments may

allow for refined estimates for determining the appropriate engineering controls and/or personal protective equipment.

Uncertainties and Limitations

The available toxicological studies for HMW polymers lack data on materials with molecular weights < 70,000 Daltons [59]. In addition, the following uncertainties and study limitations were noted, that if known, may serve to refine the boundaries for this category:

• Physicochemical properties can influence deposition of inhaled particles (e.g., particle size, distribution, density, and hygroscopicity) while solubility, surface chemistry, and composition determine biopersistence and bioreactivity and thereby impact clearance and retention. However, the available studies of test materials in this category are generally missing information on these properties, with the exception of particle size.

- Information on molecular weight was not reported for test materials used in the studies of the PVC powder [48].
- The test materials administered in the 9000 toner studies [42-47, 51, 52] included colorant materials (predominantly carbon black) at up to 10%, and the influence of these colorants on the observed effects is unknown.
- The PODs summarized in Table 3 for the HMW polymers were reported on a mass/volume basis. However, there is evidence that number of particles, particle volume, and/or volume of particles retained in the lung can influence the threshold at which lung overload conditions occur [32, 60]. Data emerging on nanomaterials and ambient ultrafine particles also increasingly suggest surface area may determine toxicity. Thus, different internal dose metrics should be explored. This can be done readily with dosimetry models as described.
- Particle morphology, reactive groups, and cytotoxicity can impede clearance pathways
 and induce other mechanisms of toxicity in rodents and humans. These factors include
 covalent binding to lung tissues, toxicity to clearance macrophages/cilia and particles
 lodging in pulmonary tissues which may not be considered in aerodynamic models. An *in*vitro macrophage clearance assay utilizing human or primate cells and rat cells would be

potentially useful information to determine whether new chemistries fall within or outside the boundaries for this category.

An additional, important consideration pertains to the uncertain association of the human relevance of lung tumors observed in rats exposed to PSPs. The rat appears to be unique among species with regard to carcinogenesis in the lung due to particle overload. Lung tumors following chronic exposure to PSPs have been reported in rats, but have not been reported in mice, hamster, non-human primates, or humans [32].

Despite the uncertainty in the carcinogenicity of inhaled PSPs, the rat model remains a useful model for lung overload because it is a sensitive model for inflammatory response to PSPs, and protecting against inflammation and proliferation may also protect against tumor formation [53].

Tiered-testing Strategy

The POD and benchmark MOE derived herein provide an analogue/read-across approach for assessing new chemical substances that fit within the chemical category

boundaries for HMW polymers. As with any analogue read-across, assessors must carefully consider the comparability of the new chemical substance to the analogue or another acceptable toxicological analogue. This framework provides specific criteria for evaluating whether a new chemical substance "fits" into the HMW polymer category (*i.e.*, not chemically reactive, insoluble in water, not expected to be directly cytotoxic, not expected to release toxic degradates). Additionally, we demonstrate the utility of dosimetry modeling to inform evaluation or experimental design.

If information is not available to evaluate whether the new chemical substance fits within the category boundaries and no acceptable toxicological analogue is available for use in a risk assessment, testing should be performed to aid with refining the evaluation of new chemistries that may present a potential lung overload hazard. A tiered-testing strategy that is consistent with the reduced vertebrate testing requirements under the amended TSCA is provided. Though this strategy does not completely exclude vertebrate testing, it maximizes the use of NAMs for determining whether vertebrate testing should be considered. This strategy incorporates *in chemico* and/or *in vitro*

characterization of the chemical substance in Tier I (*e.g.*, particle physical characteristics, reactivity, and biosolubility measurements). For substances that have particles in the respirable range, are non-reactive, and are not biosoluble, computational screening is included under Tier II to determine whether the HMW polymer is estimated to exceed the clearance t½ in the rat or demonstrate overload under anticipated use conditions. If the HMW polymer is expected to exceed the clearance t½ in the rat, then risk management options or strategic *in vivo* testing is proposed as a final option under Tier III.

Tier I

Particle Size Distribution or Aerosolized Droplet Size of particle in use (*i.e.*, cascade impactor, laser methods, *e.g.*, OECD TG 110 [61], OPPTS 830.7520
 [62]) of the new chemical substance during specific use(s) (*i.e.*, depending on the intended or known uses of the chemical substances, particle size distribution
 may need to be tested under more than one use scenario)

- lf the % of respirable particles (*i.e.*, ≤ 10 μm) is less than 1 wt% under the conditions of use, or following transport, stop at Tier I.
- If the % of respirable particles (*i.e.*, ≤ 10 μm) is greater than 1 wt% under the conditions of use, or if respirable particles are anticipated or shown to be generated following transport (> 1%), then proceed with reactivity testing, if needed, or biosolubility testing.

Reactivity

- o If the HMW polymer is a potential concern for reactivity, based on other information (*e.g.*, does not meet the E1 FG/FGEW criteria), reactivity should be assessed using an *in vitro* method, preferably discussed with EPA in a pre-notice consultation meeting and prior to study initiation. The assay developed by Wiemann *et al.* (2013) [49] provides a potential option; however, there are caveats with its use, such as not being validated and uncertainty with whether the test method could be used with HMW polymers, underscoring the recommendation to consult with EPA prior to testing using this method or other test methods.
- on data from the identified assay or any other appropriate assay, it would be excluded from the HMW polymer category. If evidence indicates the substance is "non-reactive" (e.g., it does meet the E1 FG/FGEW criteria) or based on data

from the identified assay or any other appropriate assay, then proceed to biosolubility testing.

Biosolubility Testing

- Solubility in Gamble's solution (*e.g.*, ECETOC, 2013 [32]), simulated epithelial lung fluid (SELF) (*e.g.*, Boisa *et al.* 2014 [63]); and/or phagolysosomal simulant fluid (*e.g.*, BAUA, 2017 [33])
 - Employ a simple exponential decay model to predict the dissolution
 half-life: P(t)=P0e^{-rt}, where: P(t) = the amount of some quantity at
 time t; P0 = initial amount at time t = 0; r = the decay rate; t = time

The exponential decay function is the solution to the first order reaction equation, assuming a constant decay rate, r:

$$\frac{dP(t)}{dt} = -rP(t), P(0) = P_0$$

First order kinetics are used as the basis for lung clearance rates including dissolution and absorption into blood [24, 64].

- If the solubility data indicate a dissolution rate (*i.e.*, 100 mg/L/day or 72 mg/day) higher than the daily occupational exposure estimate (*e.g.*, default PDR of 50 mg/day), then stop at Tier I.
- If the solubility data indicate a dissolution rate lower than the daily occupational exposure estimate, then proceed with Tier II testing.

If the % of respirable particles is > 1 wt%, the HMW polymer is non-reactive, and the HMW polymer has a dissolution rate that is lower than the estimated daily occupational exposure estimate, proceed to Tier II.

Tier II

Perform computational modeling (*e.g.*, MPPD) to predict deposition, clearance, and lung burden for a simulated chronic rat exposure (See, *e.g.*, Ladics *et al.*, 2020 [23]). If dissolution data are not available, assume the test substance is poorly soluble.

If the MPPD simulations do not indicate overload under the conditions of use,
 stop at Tier II.

If the simulations indicate overload under the conditions of use, consider risk management options (*e.g.*, engineering controls and personal protective equipment) or proceed to Tier III.

Tier III

- Strategic in vivo testing should be considered, albeit on a case-by-case basis,
 and after discussions with EPA at a pre-notice consultation meeting. When
 performed, the testing should include:
 - MPPD simulations to predict deposited and retained mass for the specific particle size, distribution, and density of the new chemical substance to identify exposure levels where overload is likely to occur.
 - Exposure at concentrations that allow for a concentration-response for low exposures, where pulmonary clearance is not impaired, and a high

exposure that demonstrates impaired pulmonary clearance of particles and lead to an "overload" condition. It has been shown that in rats impaired clearance starts when phagocytized particle volume exceeds 6% of normal alveolar macrophage volume and clearance stops altogether when phagocytized volume reaches 60% of normal macrophage volume (See, *e.g.*, Borm *et al.*, 2015 [65]); and

Special attention to pulmonary function tests; blood oxygen (pO₂); lung burden measurements and lung clearance kinetics; collection of BALF for assessment of marker enzyme activities, total protein content, and cell counts; lung retention and clearance; lung weight; and lung histopathology (inflammation and cell proliferation). It is not necessary to evaluate internal organs. OECD TG 413 [66] and OECD GD 39 [67] should be consulted, given that the 90-day subchronic inhalation toxicity study in rats (OECD 413) with a 60-day recovery period is sufficient for identifying lung overload for PSPs in this species [2]. The utility of studies of shorter exposure duration (*e.g.*, 5 days) followed by recovery is still being

investigated; therefore, submitters should discuss the applicability of such studies with EPA prior to initiation.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the available toxicological studies on HMW polymers support that the key parameters for determining whether a HMW polymer may present a hazard based on lung overload include: respirability, reactivity, and solubility. These are the same key parameters for lung overload caused by poorly soluble particles (PSP), an extensively studied and well-known phenomena. The tiered strategy proposed in this article takes advantage of these key factors and evaluates their applicability to HMW polymers. Two HMW polymers were identified as toxicological analogues that may be used for "read across" when evaluating the potential of a new chemical substance to result in lung overload. When applicable, the PODs on these analogues may be refined using dosimetry modeling such as simulations with the MPPD model to predict the exposure levels when overload might occur in the experimental species, to perform interspecies extrapolation to HEC estimates, and to inform inferences for human health risk

assessment. For new chemical substances that are not suitable for read across from these toxicological analogues, or when a company prefers to provide data for its specific HMW polymer new chemical substance, the tiered-testing strategy described above provides a framework that minimizes the use of vertebrate animals, and takes advantage of new alternative assays to characterize key events in a putative AOP for PSP induced lung overload; while providing information which may be used to determine if there is a potential for new HMW polymers to present a hazard for lung overload under its condition(s) of use. Collectively, the read across approach, the MPPD model simulations, and the tiered-testing strategy represent a novel approach method that will aid with evaluating new chemical substances to ensure that they do not present an unreasonable risk to human health and advancing the understanding of inhaled particle toxicity. Using these approaches, data on the respirability, reactivity and solubility of HMW polymers will be evaluated by EPA and only when needed, on a case by case basis, will animal studies be considered and discussed with the new chemical substance manufacture. resulting in a reduction and refinement of the number of animals used. The tiered testing approach was developed based on the best available

science currently available. It is expected that as new data is provided to EPA through new substance notifications, the tiered testing framework will be evaluated and updated as appropriate. This is in line with EPA's Strategic Plan to Promote the Development and Implementation of Alternative Test Methods.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information.

The Supporting Information file contains the following:

Section 1. Systematic Literature Review

Section 2. Experimental Animal Inhalation Studies on HMW Polymers

Section 3. Benchmark Dose (BMD) Modeling Outputs

Section 4: MPPD Modeling Outputs

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The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Funding Sources

EPA sponsored the initial literature review through a government contract to SRC, Inc., (68HERH19F0197 (TO#07)). The American Chemistry Council's TSCA Section 5 Testing Consortium sponsored an updated literature review by an independent third party.

Notes

Disclaimer: The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views or policies of their respective employers. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute endorsement for use.

Disclosures: TS, AMJ, KS, WI, and TRH are employed by the federal government. OTP has performed MPPD modeling for a company that manufactures, processes, and/or uses HMW polymers. GSL, AT, MPH, RTT, and SAS are employed by companies that manufacturer, process, and/or use HMW polymers. SOS is employed by a company that represents companies that manufacture, process, and/or user HMW polymers. MO, JM, and HCL work for a company that receives contract funding from the federal government.

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Surfactants Category: The Application of a New Approach Methodology (NAM) for Assessing Inhalation Risks under the Amended Toxic Substances Control Act

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KEYWORDS: Inhalation, Surfactant, New Approach Methodologies, Lung Toxicity, Risk

Assessment

ABSTRACT

The Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) requires anyone who plans to manufacture (including

import) a new chemical substance for a non-exempt commercial purpose to provide the U.S.

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) with a premanufacture notice (PMN) prior to

commercialization. Surfactants are a class of chemical substances used in a variety of industrial

operations, occupational settings, and in consumer products. Their uses in such applications

provide pathways of exposure by which potential toxicity of these compounds may occur to

humans. While TSCA requires submission of any existing toxicity data, it does not require

generation of toxicity data for the purpose of, or prior to, submitting a PMN. TSCA requires

EPA to review the PMN to determine whether the new chemical substance presents an unreasonable risk of injury to human health or the environment and mandates that EPA reduce or replace vertebrate animals in testing, to the extent practicable and scientifically justified. EPA therefore relies on several approaches that do not rely on de novo toxicity testing. Analogue readacross, in which toxicity data for a chemical of similar structure and activity are used to assess the new chemical, and chemical categories (a group of chemicals whose properties are likely to be similar or follow a regular pattern as a result of mechanism, mode of toxic action or structural similarity) have been used by EPA for decades to assess new chemical substances. This investigation was conducted to identify surfactant chemicals with toxicity data relevant for use in conducting a quantitative human health risk assessment for new surfactant substances and to define a TSCA New Chemical Category for surfactants. Category boundaries, which are defined, toxicological analogues suitable for conducting 'read-across' hazard assessment (i.e., hazard identification and dose-response analysis) are identified and a tiered-testing strategy aimed at using new approach methodologies (NAMs) to reduce or replace animal testing is outlined. This tiered strategy to defining and evaluating the Surfactant Category provides a pragmatic and scientifically defensible approach to facilitate EPA's review of PMNs for new surfactants and a strategic testing approach that provides the data needed to conduct or refine surfactant risk assessments while also meeting the requirements of TSCA to reduce vertebrate testing.

INTRODUCTION

The Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) was amended in 2016 by the Frank R. Lautenberg Chemical Safety for the 21st Century Act (Pub. L. 114-182). The amended TSCA included substantial changes to EPA's authorities and responsibilities, including requirements on EPA to

make a determination regarding sufficiency of information, environmental releases and human exposure, and unreasonable risks. The amended TSCA also included provisions mandating EPA to "reduce and replace, to the extent practicable, [and] scientifically justified" the use of vertebrate animals in the testing of chemicals substances. Specifically, TSCA section 4(h) charges EPA with encouraging and facilitating—

- (1) the use of scientifically valid test methods and strategies that reduce or replace the use of vertebrate animals while providing information of equivalent or better scientific quality and relevance that will support regulatory decisions under TSCA;
- (2) the grouping of 2 or more chemical substances into scientifically appropriate categories in cases in which testing of a chemical substance would provide scientifically valid and useful information on other chemical substances in the category; and
- (3) the formation of industry consortia to jointly conduct testing to avoid unnecessary duplication of tests, provided that such consortia make all information from such testing available to the Administrator.

The present investigation advances each of these TSCA mandates for chemical substances characterized as surfactants.

A surfactant is a substance that reduces the surface tension of a liquid in which it is dissolved.

They are surface-active, amphiphilic compounds that self-assemble to form micelles or aggregates above a critical concentration, referred to as the critical micelle concentration (CMC).

These substances are commonly used in industrial processes, occupational settings, and in

consumer products (e.g., household cleaning products, personal care products, etc.) as detergents, wetting agents, emulsifiers, foaming agents, and dispersants. The widespread use of surfactants provides opportunities for releases and exposure to human or environmental receptors. The inherent properties of surfactants may induce toxicity if exposures can interfere with biological surfactants or tissues. Certain surfactants are commonly used in a laboratory setting to disrupt cell membranes and denature proteins, which demonstrates the inherent hazards of surfactants. For example, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS; Chemical Abstracts Service Registry Number (CASRN) 151-21-3), a strong anionic surfactant, is used at concentrations up to 10% to disrupt cell membranes and to denature proteins, whereas octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol (CASRN 9002-93-1), a mild nonionic surfactant, at concentrations up to 1% disrupt cell membranes, while preserving proteins for isolation [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Burden</Author><Year>2012</Year><RecNum>14727</RecNum ><DisplayText>[1]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14727</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596017177">14727</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>>author>Burden, D.W.</author></contributors></title>Guide to the Disruption of Biological Samples - 2012, Version 1.1.</title><secondary-title>Random Primers</secondarytitle></title></periodical><full-title>Random Primers</full-title></periodical><pages>1-25</pages><number>12</number><dates><year>2012</year></dates><urls></urls></record>

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Hazard concerns for surfactants historically focused on their observed environmental effects and potential toxicity to aquatic organisms based on "down the drain" releases and/or presence in effluent from wastewater treatment facilities [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA 1. The EPA has established chemical categories for nonionic, anionic, and cationic (quaternary ammonium) surfactants based on environmental toxicity concerns [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2010</Year><RecNum>14729</RecNum>< DisplayText>[3]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14729</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596017536">14729</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>T SCA New Chemicals Program (NCP) Chemical Categories</title><secondary-title>Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title>>eriodical><full-title>Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>157, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-10/documents/ncp chemical categories august 2010 version 0.pdf</pages><dates><year>201 0</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]. Surfactants may pose a potential hazard to humans, depending on their use and route of exposure, because they can disrupt the normal architecture of the lipid bilayer and reduce the surface tension, thereby solubilizing cell membranes. Mucous membranes are particularly sensitive to the surface-active effects of surfactants, which have been shown to cause irritancy and injury to the eye, based on their ability to "readily penetrate the sandwiched aqueous and lipid barriers of the cornea" [ADDIN

EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Fox</Author><Year>2008</Year><RecNum>14730</RecNum>
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Section">5</ref-type><contributors><author>Fox, D.A.</author><author>Boyes,
W.K.</author></authors><secondary-authors><author>Klaassen, C.D.</author></secondary-authors></contributors><titles><title>Toxic Responses of the Ocular and Visual
System</title><secondary-title>Casarett & Doull& Doull&

Depending on the conditions of use, the potential for inhalation exposures to workers and/or consumers warrant consideration in quantitative risk assessments. Surfactants may cause adverse effects on mucous membranes, including the respiratory tract, and interfere with the natural pulmonary surfactants and result in reduction in the oxygen content of arterial blood due to impaired gas exchange in the pulmonary region, increases in pulmonary extravascular water volume and wet-to-dry weight ratio of the lungs, grossly visible pulmonary edema, and atelectasis [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. The chemical category boundary for surfactants that may have the potential to present an inhalation hazard has not been previously defined. The toxicity of surfactants by inhalation exposure can vary over several

orders of magnitude, based on their chemical properties, although differences in exposure conditions are an important confounder to consider in cross category comparisons. For example, among the available data, a lowest-observed-adverse-effect concentration [LOAEC] of 5.3 mg/m³) was determined for octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol, a nonionic surfactant, in a 14-day whole body study ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA while a LOAEC of 0.08 mg/m³ in a 4-week nose-only study [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2016</Year><RecNum>14732</RecNum>< DisplayText>[10]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14732</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596018482">14732</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>S ubchronic Inhalation Toxicity Study of DDAC - Revised</title><secondary-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title>><periodical><full-title>Office of Chemical Safety and Pollution Prevention, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>25</pages><volume>HQ-OPP-2006-0338-0045</volume><dates><year>2016</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>] was observed for didecyldimethyl ammonium chloride (DDAC; CASRN 7173-51-5), a cationic

The objectives of the present investigation were to: (1) perform a systematic review of the literature with the aim of defining the chemical space for surfactants; (2) identify inhalation

surfactant and biocide.

toxicity studies on surfactants that may be used to inform inhalation risk assessments; (3) describe scientifically sound new approach methodologies (NAMs) to reduce or replace animal testing; and (4) establish a tiered-testing strategy that uses NAMs to evaluate new chemistries in the Surfactant Category.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Systematic Literature Review

Two literature searches were performed, an initial search from 1950 through November 2016 and a supplemental search up to April 2018. The details of these searches, including the search strategies, search terms, search results and Population, Exposure, Comparison, and Outcome (PECO) criteria used for reviewing the relevance of the identified studies to this evaluation are provided in the Supporting Information file at "Section 1 Systematic Literature Review". These searches were conducted with the primary objective of identifying studies that evaluated the toxicity of surfactants in the respiratory tract of humans or laboratory animals, and at the cellular level in *in vitro* and *ex vivo* studies. In addition, these searches were used to identify potential NAMs that could inform a tiered-testing strategy for general surfactants that reduces or replaces the use of vertebrate animals in regulatory testing.

Risk Assessment Approaches under TSCA

Risk Assessment Paradigm

The methods for assessing risks of new chemical substances under TSCA have been developed using science-based approaches, scientific peer review, and refinement of the approaches. EPA conducts risk assessments following the four-step process articulated by the U.S. National

Research Council (NRC) in 1983 [11] and reaffirmed several times since its initial release [12, 13]. This process includes hazard identification, dose-response analysis, exposure assessment, and risk characterization. Hazard assessment (also called effects assessment in some EPA guidance documents) identifies the adverse health or environmental effects, or hazards, that can be caused by exposure to a chemical substance. The dose-response analysis assesses the relationship between the exposure or dose of a chemical and the occurrence of health or environmental effects. The exposure assessment characterizes human or environmental exposures, including the magnitude, frequency, and duration, to the extent necessary and practicable within the context of the assessment. Finally, the risk characterization integrates the hazard, dose-response, and exposure components to describe the nature, and when possible, the magnitude of risks to human health and the environment.

The approaches employed for these risk assessment components, including the level of detail and complexity of quantitative aspects, may vary across different risk assessments and typically align with specific legislative and regulatory frameworks. For example, legislative and regulatory frameworks for hazard evaluation of pesticide active ingredients, anti-microbial substances, inerts, *etc.* are described in regulations for pesticides, which include multiple and specific requirements for toxicity data. Under TSCA and its implementing regulations [ADDIN EN.CITE

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Hazard Assessment

Given the lack of toxicity testing requirements under TSCA, EPA only occasionally receives hazard data for new chemical substances. An analysis of toxicity data submitted to EPA from 2004 through 2012 for new chemical substances found that only about 15% of the PMN submissions included health hazard data; the majority of that information was for acute toxicity (e.g., 24-hour dermal toxicity study with a 14-day post-administration observation period) and irritation (e.g., 4-hour dermal irritation/corrosion with a 14-day post-administration observation period or 24-hour eye irritation/corrosion with a 21-day post-administration observation period) in laboratory animals. TSCA provides EPA with the authority to require the generation and

submission of additional data when the information included with the PMN— coupled with that available to EPA risk assessors from predictive modeling, read-across, internal archives, *etc.*—is insufficient to permit a reasoned evaluation of the health and environmental effects of a new chemical substance. However, prior to making a request for testing using vertebrate animals, EPA must take into consideration reasonably available existing information, including toxicity information; computational toxicology and bioinformatics; and high-throughput screening methods and the prediction models of those methods (TSCA Section 4(h)(A)(i)-(iii)).

Given the historical lack of hazard data, EPA has, for decades, employed a number of approaches that do not rely on *de novo* toxicity testing. These approaches include computational toxicology (*e.g.*, predictive models and expert systems), analogue¹ read-across wherein available toxicity data for a chemical of similar structure and activity are used to assess the new chemical substance lacking data, and chemical categories (a group of chemicals whose properties are likely to be similar or follow a regular pattern as a result of mechanism, mode of toxic action or structural similarity) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. The integration of these methods with NAMs to advance testing strategies has been recognized by Dellarco *et al.* [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] and is consistent with the vision articulated in the 2007 report by the NRC in "Toxicity Testing in the 21st Century: A Vision and Strategy" [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>NRC</Author><Year>2007</Year><RecNum>14741</RecNum><

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¹ In the context of this article, an analogue is a chemical substance identified based on its physicochemical and toxicological properties, as one that has undergone evaluation, as stated above, and determined to be an acceptable toxicological analogue for read across to the new chemical substance. An analogue may be directly used in read-across for informing a quantitative risk assessment on a new chemical substance.

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type><contributors><author>NRC</author></authors></contributors><title>T oxicity Testing in the 21st Century: A Vision and a Strategy, Washington, D.C. The National

https://doi.org/10.17226/11970</pages><volume>ISBNs: Ebook: 978-0-309-13412-5;

Paperback: 978-0-309-15173-

Academies Press</title></title><pages>216, DOI:

3</volume><dates><year>2007</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

EPA defines NAMs "as a broadly descriptive reference to any technology, methodology, approach, or combination thereof that can be used to provide information on chemical hazard and risk assessment that avoids the use of intact animals" [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2018</Year><RecNum>14844</RecNum><

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Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title>

Safety and Pollution Prevention & Development, U.S.

Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>39, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2018-06/documents/epa_alt_strat_plan_6-20-18_clean_final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA-740-R1-8004</volume><dates><year>2018</year></dates><urls></record></crite></EndNote>]

Dose-Response Analysis

In the absence of test data on new chemical substances, EPA relies on read-across methods using an analogue or a category of analogues in the absence of test data on the new chemical substance to identify hazards and conduct dose-response analysis to identify a point of departure (POD), i.e., a dose or concentration that marks the beginning of a low-dose extrapolation. Toxicity data for analogues are used to identify a POD, such as a no observed adverse effect (concentration) level (NOAE(C)L) or lowest observed adverse effect (concentration) level (LOAE(C)L, for assessing risks of the new chemical substance. This POD can also be the lower bound on dose (or concentration) for an estimated incidence or a change in response level calculated by a doseresponse model such as those available in EPA's benchmark dose software (BMDS), e.g., the BMCL for an observed incidence or change in level of response [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2012</Year><RecNum>14744</RecNum>< DisplayText>[18]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14744</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596019975">14744</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-

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Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>99,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-

01/documents/benchmark dose guidance.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/100/R-

12/001</volume><dates><year>2012</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote

>]. EPA's current chemical categories document on surfactants entitled "TSCA New Chemicals

Program (NCP) Chemical Categories" [ADDIN EN.CITE

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Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C.

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Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-

title></periodical><pages>157, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

10/documents/ncp chemical categories august 2010 version 0.pdf</pages><dates><year>201

0</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>] includes information for anionic,

nonionic, and cationic surfactants; however, these were previously developed and defined only on environmental toxicity considerations.

EPA has also developed guidance to improve the science underlying the animal-to-human uncertainty factor and provides generalized procedures for deriving dosimetric adjustment factors (DAFs) to perform interspecies extrapolation [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2002</Year><RecNum>14743</RecNum>< DisplayText>[19, 20]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14743</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596019884">14743</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></contributors><title>A Review of the Reference Dose and Reference Concentration Processes</title><secondarytitle>Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></titles><periodical><full-title>Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>192, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-12/documents/rfd-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/630/P-02/002F</volume><dates></ed></dates></urls></record></cite>< Author>EPA</Author><Year>1994</Year><RecNum>14746</RecNum><record><recnumber>14746</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" dbid="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596021628">14746</key></foreignkeys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title></title>

Methods for Derivation of Inhalation Reference Concentrations and Application of Inhalation

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Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research

Triangle Park, NC</full-title></periodical><pages>389,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

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11/documents/rfc_methodology.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/600/8-

90/066F</volume><dates><year>1994</year></dates><urls></urls></record></EndNot
e>]. Application of DAFs to the animal airborne exposure values yields estimates of the concentration that would result in the same concentration to humans, that is, the human equivalent concentration (HEC). Application of a DAF in the calculation of an HEC is considered to address the toxicokinetic (TK) aspects, but not the toxicodynamic (TD) component, of the animal-to-human uncertainty factor (UF) (*i.e.*, to estimate from animal exposure information the human exposure scenario that would result in the same dose as achieved in the animal to a given target tissue) [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2002</Year><RecNum>14743</RecNum>
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Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-

title></periodical><pages>192, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

12/documents/rfd-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/630/P-

02/002F</volume><dates><year>2002</year></dates><urls></urls></record></EndNot e>]. This operational derivation of a DAF involves the use of species-specific physiologic and anatomic factors relevant to the form of pollutant (*e.g.*, particle, reactive gas, or volatile organic compound) coupled with consideration of the location and type of toxic response. These factors are all employed in determining the appropriate DAF. For HECs, DAFs are applied to the "duration-adjusted" concentration to which the animals were exposed (*e.g.*, to a weekly average based on number of h/d and d/w).

For interspecies extrapolation of particle exposures, the Regional Deposited Dose Ratio (RDDR) model developed by EPA can be used to derive a DAF. The RDDR is the ratio of the deposited dose in a respiratory tract region (r) for the laboratory animal species of interest (RDD_A) to that of humans (RDD_H) [ADDIN EN.CITE

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https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

11/documents/rfc methodology.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/600/8-

90/066F</volume><dates><year>1994</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNot e>]. EPA's RDDR model allows calculation of RDDR estimates in various regions of the respiratory tract for animals versus humans (*i.e.*, extra-thoracic [ET], tracheobronchial [TB], pulmonary [PU], thoracic [TH], total respiratory tract [RT] and extra-respiratory [ER] regions). The RDDR calculation is based on the characteristics of the aerosol tested in the inhalation study (*i.e.*, the Median Mass Aerodynamic Diameter or MMAD, Geometric Standard Deviation or GSD, and density), and species-specific parameters for both animals and humans including ventilation rates and regional surface areas of the respiratory tract. The RDDR selected as the DAF is informed by the effects (clinical signs, tissue effects, biochemical changes) observed in the animal toxicity study and the aerosol characteristics in the inhalation study. The DAF is then applied to the duration-adjusted POD to arrive at the HEC of the POD (POD_{HEC}). The EPA's RDDR model was used herein to calculate HEC values from the aerosol exposures to laboratory animals available for each of the surfactant classes.

After an analogue(s) is identified, the strengths, limitations, and uncertainties associated with the use of the substance(s) to predict the hazards for the new chemical substance under evaluation

are considered when deriving a benchmark margin of exposure (MOE). The benchmark MOE is the result of multiplying all relevant UFs to account for: (1) the variation in susceptibility among the members of the human population (i.e., interindividual or intraspecies variability); (2) the extrapolation from animal data to humans (i.e., interspecies extrapolation); (3) the extrapolation from data in a study with less- than- lifetime exposure (i.e., extrapolating from sub-chronic to chronic exposure); (4) the extrapolation from a LOAEL to a NOAEL [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2002</Year><RecNum>14743</RecNum>< DisplayText>[19, 21]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14743</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596019884">14743</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></contributors><title>A Review of the Reference Dose and Reference Concentration Processes</title><secondarytitle>Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></titles><periodical><full-title>Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>192, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-12/documents/rfd-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/630/P-02/002F</volume><dates><year>2002</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite>< Author>EPA</Author><Year>2014</Year><RecNum>14742</RecNum><record><recnumber>14742</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" dbid="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596019768">14742</key></foreign-

keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-

type><contributors><author><PA</author></authors></contributors><title>G uidance for Applying Quantitative Data to Develop Data-Derived Extrapolation Factors for Interspecies and Intraspecies Extrapolation</title><secondary-title>Office of the Science Advisor, Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title>><periodical><full-title>Office of the Science Advisor, Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</fulltitle></periodical><pages>109, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-01/documents/ddef-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/R-14/002F</volume><dates><year>2014</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNot e>]. EPA prefers using existing information to develop data-derived extrapolation factors (DDEFs) or chemical specific adjustment factors (CSAFs) rather than relying on default values [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2014</Year><RecNum>14742</RecNum>< DisplayText>[21]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14742</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596019768">14742</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>G uidance for Applying Quantitative Data to Develop Data-Derived Extrapolation Factors for Interspecies and Intraspecies Extrapolation </ title >< secondary-title > Office of the Science Advisor, Risk Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C.

20460</secondary-title></title>><periodical><full-title>Office of the Science Advisor, Risk

Assessment Forum, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-

title></periodical><pages>109, https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-01/documents/ddef-final.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/R-14/002F</volume><dates><year>2014</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>]. This investigation includes several approaches to derive DDEFs for use in assessing new surfactant chemical substances.

Exposure Assessment

In assessing new chemical substances, generally new chemical substances do not have occupational exposure monitoring data or consumer exposure data; therefore, EPA typically evaluates occupational exposures first, given that these represent the highest exposure estimates. Therefore, this evaluation focused on occupational exposures, recognizing that consumer exposures would also be considered, if applicable. EPA develops exposure estimates for workers using the Chemical Screening Tool for Exposures and Environmental Releases (ChemSTEER) model. ChemSTEER estimates exposure as daily acute potential dose rates (PDRs) or lifetime average daily doses (LADDs). The PDR represents average exposure over an 8-hour workday, whereas the LADD estimates long-term exposures to the chemical substance and is averaged over a lifetime exposure of 75 years. The PDR, an initial conservative exposure estimate, is considered to be the more appropriate dose-metric for estimating risks to surfactants because surfactants are surface-active at the point of exposure and effects in the respiratory tract occur rapidly following exposure. This assumes that neither the chemical nor its damage accumulate or distribute to systemic compartments. For chemical substances used in a liquid, mist, or aerosol form, the general default PDR values are 1.875 mg/kg-bw/day for inhalable aerosols or 0.625 mg/kg-bw/day for respirable aerosols as shown in [REF $\,$ Ref46930162 \h * $\,$ MERGEFORMAT] [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2015</Year><RecNum>14745</RecNum><

DisplayText>[22]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14745</rec-number><foreign-

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type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>C

hemSTEER User Guide, Chemical Screening Tool for Exposures and Environmental

Releases</title><secondary-title>Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental

Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title>

title>Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency,

Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>403,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2015-

05/documents/user_guide.pdf</pages><dates><year>2015</year></dates><urls></record></Cite></EndNote>].

Table [SEQ Table * ARABIC]. Default values used for calculating the daily acute potential dose rate (PDR).

following equation: $Cm = KCk \times Ys/Ypel$

Description	Equation	Description	Equation ^a	Defaults	Units
PDR (mg/kg- bw/day)	I/BW	Inhalation PDR (I)	Cm \times b \times h, where Cm is the mass concentration of chemical in air, b is the volumetric inhalation rate (0 < b \leq 7.9), and h is the exposure duration (0 \leq h \leq 24)	$Cm = 15 \text{ mg/m}^3$ $b = 1.25 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr}$ $h = 8 \text{ hours/day}$	mg/day
	Body weight (BW)	BW (0 ≤ BW)	80 kg-bw	kg-bw	
^a Cm may also be a	djusted for the m	ass concentration of th	e chemical with a permissible exp	oosure limit (PEL) in	air (based on the U.S.

Occupational Safety and Health Administration [OSHA] PEL – time-weighted average [TWA]; where: KCk = the mass concentration limit of total particulate in air (mg/m³) with a default of 15 mg/m³ for inhalable and 5 mg/m³ for respirable, Ys= the weight fraction of chemical in particulate ($0 \le Ys \le 1$), Ypel=the weight fraction of chemical or metal in particulate with a known PEL ($0 \le Ypel \le 1$) using the

The PDR is calculated using an exposure regimen for a default worker of 8 hours/day and 5 days/week, unless chemical-specific manufacture, processing or use information are provided in the PMN. The exposure conditions in laboratory animal studies often do not reflect occupational exposure scenarios; therefore, a duration adjustment and a DAF (*i.e.*, RDDR value) are applied to the POD to derive HECs for exposed human populations according to Agency methods [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>1994</Year><RecNum>14746</RecNum>
DisplayText>[20]
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timestamp="1596021628">14746</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal
Article">17</ref-</pre>

type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title></title>

Methods for Derivation of Inhalation Reference Concentrations and Application of Inhalation

Dosimetry</title><secondary-title>Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental

Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research

Triangle Park, NC</full-title></periodical><pages>389,

https://www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2014-

11/documents/rfc methodology.pdf</pages><volume>EPA/600/8-

90/066F</volume><dates><year>1994</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNot e>]. Therefore, the interspecies extrapolation is performed using particle deposition models that adjust for the aerodynamics of the given particles in the different airway architecture between the

species and using species-specific physiologic parameters such as ventilation. The occupational exposure is characterized with human ventilation rates during exertion (work) and exposure durations appropriate to the specific occupational setting and chemical use scenario.

Risk Characterization

Risk characterization is the final, integrative step of risk assessment. EPA's Risk

Characterization Policy defines risk characterization as the integration of information from the hazard and exposure components of the risk assessment into an overall conclusion about risk that is complete, informative, and useful for decision-making. The risk characterization conveys the risk assessor's judgment as to the nature and existence of (or lack of) human health or ecological risks [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>EPA</Author><Year>2000</Year><RecNum>14747</RecNum>
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timestamp="1596021806">14747</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal
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type><contributors><author>EPA</author></author></contributors><title>><title>R isk Characterization</title><secondary-title>Office of Science Policy, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</secondary-title></title></periodical><full-title>Office of Science Policy, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D.C. 20460</full-title></periodical><pages>189,

https://nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPDF.cgi/40000006.PDF?Dockey=40000006.PDF</pages><volume

>EPA 100-B-00-

002</volume><dates><year>2000</year></dates><urls></urls></record></EndNote>].

As described in EPA's Risk Characterization Handbook "Risk characterization at EPA assumes different levels of complexity depending on the nature of the risk assessment being characterized and the level of information contained in each risk characterization varies according to the type of assessment for which the characterization is written and the audience for which the characterization is intended."

Under TSCA section 5, EPA must determine whether a chemical substance presents an unreasonable risk of injury to health or the environment under the conditions of use. EPA generally uses an MOE approach to characterize risks of new chemical substances as a starting point to estimate non-cancer risks for acute and chronic exposures. The MOE is the HEC derived from a POD for a health endpoint (from hazard assessment) divided by the exposure concentration for the scenario of concern (from exposure assessment). The calculated MOE is compared with a benchmark MOE to evaluate whether there is an adequate margin between human exposure estimates and the HEC. When the MOE is less than the benchmark MOE, there is a possibility of human health risks. On the other hand, negligible concerns would be expected if the MOE exceeds the benchmark MOE. The MOE approach is a widely recognized point estimate method and provides a risk profile for different non-cancer health effects and different exposure scenarios.

In summary, in developing a risk assessment for new chemical substances under TSCA section 5, EPA uses empirical data or analogues, to identify a POD(s) and to develop an exposure

estimate for use in the evaluation. The hazard assessment in combination with the exposure assessment is used to calculate an MOE, which is compared to the benchmark MOE to identify potential risks. The risk characterization is used to inform the TSCA "unreasonable risk" determination.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Literature Search and Screening Results

An initial search of PubMed identified 594 articles that were subjected to title and abstract screening. Of these articles, 551 did not meet the PECO criteria, whereas 43 met the PECO criteria and were selected for full text review. An additional 17 articles that met the PECO criteria were identified through additional search strategies, screening gray literature, references for other types of chemical substances, *etc.*, and were included for full text review. Of the 60 articles evaluated through full text screening, 25 were identified as relevant and carried forward in the present evaluation, whereas the remaining 35 articles were excluded because they lacked relevant information on respiratory tract effects or presented inconclusive epidemiology findings. In the supplemental literature search of PubMed and Embase, 1247 articles (combined) were identified. Following title and abstract screening, 1217 of these articles were excluded because they did not meet the PECO criteria, whereas 25 met the PECO criteria and were selected for full text review. An additional 10 studies that met the PECO criteria were found by additional hand searching) and were selected for full text screening, which resulted in 35 articles that were identified for review; ten articles were deemed irrelevant and excluded. A total of 25 articles were identified from both searches, one was excluded because it was in a foreign language and

the remaining 24 articles are summarized in Table 8 in the Supporting Information file at "Section 1 Systematic Literature Review".

The information identified in the systematic review was used to determine Category Boundaries and subcategories, to summarize the health effects of surfactants under the section on Hazard Identification, and to identify potential NAMs for use in the Tiered-Testing Strategies.

Category Boundaries

The following structural and functional criteria (hereinafter referred to as the "Surfactant Criteria") are used to distinguish chemical substances, which include polymers and UVCB substances, 2 intended for use as surfactants from other amphiphilic compounds (*e.g.*, ethanol) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]:

- A substance which has surface-active properties, and which consists of one or more hydrophilic and one or more hydrophobic groups;
- 2. The substance is capable of reducing the surface tension between air and water to 45 milliNewtons/meter (mN/m) or below at a test concentration of 0.5 wt% in water and a temperature of 20°C (*Cf.* Pure water has a surface tension of 72.8 mN/m at 20°C); and
- 3. The substance self-associates in water to form micellar or vesicular aggregates at a concentration of 0.5 wt% or less.

² Chemical Substances of Unknown or Variable Composition, Complex Reaction Products and Biological Materials (UVCB Substance)

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The Surfactants Category is further defined into three general subcategories including nonionic, anionic, and cationic substances. Amphoteric chemical substances that meet the Surfactant Criteria would also be included within these subcategories (*i.e.*, anionic and cationic surfactants), depending on their pH. Lung lining fluids are near neutral pH, with various measurements ranging from 6.6 to 7.1 [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. The pKa for each component of an amphoteric surfactant should be evaluated within this pH range and the assessment should be conducted on the predominant components. The non-ionized fraction for acids/bases is calculated as follows:

Acids Fraction_{non-ionized} =
$$1 / (1 + 10^{pH-pKa})$$

Bases Fraction_{non-ionized} =
$$1 / (1 + 10^{pKa-pH})$$

Where the pH represents the physiological pH in the lung lining fluid (*i.e.*, 6.6 to 7.1), and the pKa represents the value for the respective component (*e.g.*, carboxylic acid or amine).

Nonionic surfactants are identified as any neutral chemical substance that meets the Surfactant Criteria. Common nonionic surfactants include alkylphenol chemical substances with one or more ethoxylate (EO) unit as well as linear and branched alcohol chemical substances with one or more EO units. For example, octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol, a common nonionic octylphenol EO surfactant, and Polysorbate 80 (or Tween 80; CASRN: 9005-65-6), another nonionic alkyphenol ethoxylate with increased alkyl chain length and number of EO units, are shown in [REF Ref47613375 \h * MERGEFORMAT]. The surface tensions of

octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol and Polysorbate 80 range from 30-31 mN/m to 37.96 mN/m, respectively ([REF_Ref47613375 \h * MERGEFORMAT]) [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Kothekar</Author><Year>2007</Year><RecNum>14758</RecNum>CDisplayText>[30]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14758</rec-number><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr"
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S.C.</author><author>Ware, A.M.</author><author>Waghmare,
J.T.</author><author>Momin,

S.A.</author></contributors></title>Comparative Analysis of the Properties of Tween-20, Tween-60, Tween-80, Arlacel-60, and Arlacel-80</title><secondary-title>Journal of Dispersion Science and Technology</secondary-title></title><periodical><full-title>Journal of Dispersion Science and Technology</full-title></periodical><pages>477-484, https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/01932690601108045</pages><volume>28</pull-title></number>3</number><dates><year>2007</year></dates><urls></re></ri></ra>
EndNote>].

Anionic surfactants are identified as any chemical substance with a net negative charge that meets the Surfactant Criteria (*e.g.*, alkyl sulfonates, alkylbenzene sulfonates, alkylether sulfates, alkyl silicic acids, alkyl phosphates, alkyl carboxylic acids, or combinations of these anionic groups). An example anionic surfactant, SDS, has a reported surface tension of 35 mN/m ([REF Ref47613375 \h * MERGEFORMAT]).

Cationic surfactants are identified as any chemical substance with a net positive charge that meets the Surfactant Criteria (*e.g.*, alkylammonium chlorides and benzalkonium chlorides). Benzalkonium chloride (BAC; CASRN 8001-54-5) and didecyldimethyl ammonium chloride (DDAC; CASRN 7173-51-5) are representative members of this subcategory, with surface tensions of 37 mN/m and 25.82 mN/m ([REF _Ref47613375 \h * MERGEFORMAT]), respectively. It is noted that BAC and DDAC also possess biocidal properties.

Typical commercial surfactants (nonionic, anionic, and cationic) are non-volatile³ liquids or solids. This category framework focuses on exposure *via* aerosol forms (*i.e.*, both airborne droplets and solid particles, including the hygroscopic variety) of these surfactants. While the commercial use of volatile surfactants is unlikely, it should be noted that this framework is not applicable to any substances that qualify as surfactants and are volatile under the conditions of use.

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 $^{^3}$ Volatility is considered as part of the ChemSTEER modeling, wherein a vapor pressure of 1.3×10^{-04} kPa is the cutoff for gases/vapors.

Table [SEQ Table * ARABIC]. Example Chemicals that Meet "Surfactant Criteria" and Nonionic, Anionic and Cationic Subcategorization.

Nonionic Surfactants					
		Crit	Criteria 1		Criteria 3
Chemical Name in Text	Other Relevant Names	Hydrophobic group(s)	Hydrophilic group(s)	Surface Tension	Critical Micelle Concentration (CMC)
formaldehyde, polymer with oxirane and 4-(1,1,3,3- tetramethylbutyl)- phenol Defomaire Alevaire Tyloxapol CASRN: 25301-02-4	CAS Name: formaldehyde, polymer with oxirane and 4- (1,1,3,3-tetramethylbutyl)-phenol	multiple octyl phenol groups	multiple polyoxyethylene (9) units	~37 mN/m at 5 g/L (0.5 wt%) and 25°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Schott <year>1998</year>< RecNum>14754<displaytext>[31]</displaytext>re cord><rec-number>14754</rec-number><foreign-keys><key 00"="" app="EN" azr5evearxfds0err5sr"="" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" timestamp="15960240">14754</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Schott ,</author></contributors></foreign-keys></au></cite></endnote>	0.038 g/L or 0.0038 wt% [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Schott<year>1998</year><recnum>14754<!-- RecNum--><displayte xt="">[31]<record><rec- number="">14754</rec->foreign- keys><key app="EN" db-="" id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s r" timestamp="1596024 000">14754</key><!-- foreign-keys--><ref- name="Journal Article" type="">17</ref-><contributors>< author>Sch</contributors></record></displayte></recnum></cite></endnote>

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address> <title></td><td>19140</auth-</td></tr><tr><td>Comparing the Surface</td><td>address><titles><title</td></tr><tr><td>Chemical Properties</td><td>>Comparing the</td></tr><tr><td>and the Effect of Salts</td><td>Surface Chemical</td></tr><tr><td>on the Cloud Point of a</td><td>Properties and the</td></tr><tr><td>Conventional</td><td>Effect of Salts on the</td></tr><tr><td>Nonionic Surfactant,</td><td>Cloud Point of a</td></tr><tr><td>Octoxynol 9 (Triton</td><td>Conventional</td></tr><tr><td>X-100), and of Its</td><td>Nonionic Surfactant,</td></tr><tr><td>Oligomer, Tyloxapol</td><td>Octoxynol 9 (Triton</td></tr><tr><td>(Triton WR-</td><td>X-100), and of Its</td></tr><tr><td>1339)</title> <seconda< td=""><td>Oligomer, Tyloxapol</td></seconda<>	Oligomer, Tyloxapol
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octylphenoxypolyetho xyethanol CASRN: 9002-93-1	Triton X-100 Octoxynol 9 octylphenol ethoxylate CAS Name: poly(oxy-1,2-ethanediyl), .alpha[4-1,1,3,3-tetramethylbutyl)phenyl]omegahydroxy	octylphenol group	polyoxyethylene (9) unit	~30.5 mN/m at 5 g/L (0.5 wt%) and 25°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Schott <year>1998</year>< RecNum>14754<displaytext>[31]</displaytext>re cord><rec-number>14754</rec-number>foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0 azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="15960240 00">14754</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Schott , H.</author></contributors></au></cite></endnote>	0.17 g/L or 0.017 wt% [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Schott<year>1998</year><recnum>14754<!-- RecNum--><displayte xt="">[31]<record><rec- number="">14754</rec-><foreign- keys=""><key app="EN" db-="" id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s r" timestamp="1596024 000">14754</key><!-- foreign-keys--><ref- name="Journal Article" type="">17</ref-><contributors>< authors><author>Sch ott,</author></contributors></foreign-></record></displayte></recnum></cite></endnote>

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					M.J. <ti>rs><ti>tles><title>Surfactant s and interfacial phenomena</title><pages>431,</pages><dates><yea r="">1989 location>New York<publisher> John Wiley & Dong Hamp; Sons, Inc.</publisher><urls></urls> Cite>]</yea></dates></ti></ti>
Polysorbate 20 (Tween 20) CASRN: 9005-64-5	polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monolaurate CAS Name: sorbitan, monododecanoate, poly(oxy- 1,2-ethanediyl) derivs.	dodecanoyl group	sorbitan polyoxyethylene (20) unit	38 mN/m at 8.04×10 ⁻⁵ M (0.001 wt%) and 21°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Kim< Year>2001<r ecnum="">14756<displaytext>[35]</displaytext>[35]recor d><rec-number>14756</rec-number><foreign-keys><key <="" app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" td=""><td>8.04×10⁻⁵ M or 0.001 wt% at 21°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><a uthor>Kim <year>2001</year> <recnum>14756ecNum>CDisplayTex t>[35]><record><rec- number>14756</rec- number>foreign- keys><key <br="" app="EN">db- id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s</key></record></recnum></a </cite></endnote></td></key></foreign-keys></r></au></cite></endnote>	8.04×10 ⁻⁵ M or 0.001 wt% at 21°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><a uthor>Kim <year>2001</year> <recnum>14756ecNum>CDisplayTex t>[35]><record><rec- number>14756</rec- number>foreign- keys><key <br="" app="EN">db- id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s</key></record></recnum></a </cite></endnote>

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Polysorbate 80 (Tween 80) CASRN: 9005-65-6	polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monooleate CAS Name: sorbitan, mono- (9Z)-9-octadecenoate, poly(oxy-1,2-ethanediyl) derivs.	octadecenoyl	sorbitan polyoxyethylene (20) unit	37.96 mN/m at 5 g/L (0.5 wt%) and 30°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Kothekar<year>2007</year><recnum>14758</recnum>CDisplayText>[30]record><recnumber>14758</recnumber><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0 azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="15960252 28">14758</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author><author<<author><author< a=""><author<<a><author< a=""><author<<a><author< a=""><author<<a><author< a=""><author< a=""><author<<a><author< a=""><author< a=""></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<></author<<a></author<></author<></author<<a></author<></author<<a></author<></author<<a></author<></author<<author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></author></contributors></foreign-keys></au></cite></endnote>	1.5×10 ⁻⁵ M or 0.002 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Mahmood<year>2013<recnum>1475 7</recnum><displa ytext="">[36]=cord><rec- number="">14757</rec-><foreign- keys=""><key app="EN" db-="" id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s r" timestamp="1596024 783">14757</key><ref- name="Journal Article" type="">17</ref-><contributors>< authors><author>Ma hmood, M.E.</author><author}< td=""></author}<></contributors></foreign-></displa></year></cite></endnote>

	A.M. <author>Waghmare, J.T.</author> <author author="" momin,="" s.a.<=""></author> <title s=""><title>Comparative Analysis of the Properties of Tween- 20, Tween-60, Tween- 80, Arlacel-60, and Arlacel- 80</title> <secondary- title="">Journal of Dispersion Science and Technology r>Al-Koofee, D.A.F.Effect of Temperature Changes on Critical Micelle Concentration for Tween Series Surfactants< econdary-title>Glob Journal of Science Frontier Research Chemistry<period ical=""><full- title="">Global Journal of Science Frontier</full-></period></secondary->
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				rd>>]	
Poloxamer 188	CAS Name: oxirane, 2-	polyoxypropylene	two	~42-44 mN/m at ~0.5	4.8×10 ⁻⁴ M or 0.4
CASRN: 691397-13-4	methyl-, polymer with oxirane, triblock	(27) unit	polyoxyethylene (80) units	wt% and 36°C [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]	wt% at 37°C [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]
N,N-dimethyl-	lauryl dimethylamine oxide	dodecyl group	amine oxide unit	34.1 mN/m at 1 g/L	1.7×10 ⁻³ M or 0.039
dodecylamine-N-oxide				(0.1 wt%) and 20°C [wt% [ADDIN
(C ₁₂ AO)***	CAS Name:1-dodecanamine,			ADDIN ÉN.CITE	EN.CITE
	N,N-dimethyl-, N-oxide			<endnote><cite><au< td=""><td><endnote><cite><a< td=""></a<></cite></endnote></td></au<></cite></endnote>	<endnote><cite><a< td=""></a<></cite></endnote>
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	hors>< titles> <tititle>Dodecyld imethylamine oxide, CASRN: 1643-20-5, EC number: 216-700- 6, Surface Tension Tension /title><secon dary-title="">European Chemicals Agency<periodic al=""><full- title="">European Chemicals Agency</full->/periodical><pa ges="">https://echa.europ a.eu/registration- dossier/-/registered- dossier/10062/4/11 ages><dates><year>2 020</year></dates><u rls=""> Cite>]</u></pa></periodic></secon></tititle>	H. <titl es=""><title>Correlation between surface and interfacial tensions with micellar structures and properties of surfactant solutions</title><sec ondary-title="">Progress in Colloid & title> ScienceProgress in Colloid & title>Progress in Colloid & titl</sec></titl>
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Chemical	Other Relevant Names	Criteria 1	Criteria 2	Criteria 3

Name in Text		Hydrophobic group(s)	Hydrophilic group(s)	Surface Tension	Critical Micelle Concentration (CMC)
(SDS)	CAS Name: sulfuric acid monododecyl ester sodium salt (1:1)	dodecyl group	sulfate group	35 mN/m at 0.29 wt% and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">HernainzYear>2002 <recnum>14768CisplayText> [42] record><recnumber>14768</recnumber>foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0 azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="15960273 63">14768</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Hernainz, F.</author><author>Caro, A.</author></contributors><tittle>Variation of</tittle></recnum></au></cite></endnote>	8.25×10 ⁻³ M or 0.24 wt% at 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Mukerjee<year>1971<recnum>1476 5</recnum><displa ytext="">[41]=cord><recnumber>14765</recnumber><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre 0azr5evearxfds0err5s" timestamp="1596026 897">14765</key></foreign-keys><reftype name="Journal Article">17</reftype><contributors><author>Mukerjee, P.</author><author>Mysels, K.J.</author></contributors></displa></year></cite></endnote>

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oleoyl sarcosine	CAS Name: glycine, N-	oleyl group	carboxylic acid	31.91 mN/m at 0.1	2.6×10 ⁻³ wt% and
	methyl-N-((9Z)-1-oxo-9-		anion	wt% and 19.9°C** [~25°C **
CASRN: 110-25-8	octadecen-1-y			ADDIN EN.CITE	(temperature not
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ttemChemicals</auth</td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>ate, CASRN 3624-77-</td><td>or></authors></contr</td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>9, EC number: 222-</td><td>ibutors><titles><title</td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>9, EC number. 222-
829-9, Surface</td><td>>Oleoyl Sarcosine,</td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>Tension</title> <secon< td=""><td>CASRN 110-25-</td></secon<>	CASRN 110-25-
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sodium lauroyl sarcosinate CASRN: 137-16-6	CAS Name: glycine, N-methyl-N-(1-oxododecyl)-, sodium salt (1:1)	lauryl group	carboxylic acid anion	40.5 mN/m at 2 wt% and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Dossier><year>2020</year> <recnum>14770CDisplayText> [45]<r ecord=""><rec-number>14770</rec-number>foreign-keys><key <="" app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0" td=""><td>8.0×10⁻² wt% and ~25°C (temperature not reported, assumed to be room temperature) [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>ChattemChemi cals<year>2020</year><recn um="">14769</recn></cite></endnote></td></key></r></recnum><displaytext>[44] </displaytext><rec rd=""><rec number="" rec="">14769</rec></rec></au></cite></endnote>	8.0×10 ⁻² wt% and ~25°C (temperature not reported, assumed to be room temperature) [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>ChattemChemi cals<year>2020</year><recn um="">14769</recn></cite></endnote>

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benzalkonium chloride (BAC) CASRN: 8001-54-5	CAS Name: quaternary ammonium compounds, alkylbenzyldimethyl, chlorides	alkyl chains are C12, C14, C16 and C18 and benzyl group	quaternary nitrogen	37 mN/m at concentrations greater than about 4×10 ⁻⁴ M and 25°C* [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Nandni<year>2013</year><recnum>14766<displaytext> [47]</displaytext>record><recnumber>14766</recnumber><foreign-keys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0 azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="15960270 33">14766</key><ref-type name="Journal Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Nandni,</author></contributors></foreign-keys></recnum></au></cite></endnote>	C12: reported values range from 2.3 - 8.5×10 ⁻³ M or 0.078 · 0.29 wt% at 25°C C14: 3.7×10 ⁻⁴ M or 0.014 wt% and ~25°C (temperature not stated; assumed to be room temperature) C16: 4.2×10 ⁻⁵ M or 0.0016 wt% at 23°C C18: reported values range from 7.1 - 8.5×10 ⁻⁶ M or 0.0003 - 0.00036 wt% at 23°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><author>Mukerjee</author></cite></endnote>

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didecyldimethyl ammonium chloride (DDAC) CASRN: 7173-51-5	CAS Name: 1- decanaminium, N-decyl-N,N- dimethyl-, chloride (1:1)	decyl groups	quaternary nitrogen	25.82 mN/m at 1 g/L (0.1 wt%) and 20°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite><au thor="">Dossier<year>2020</year> <recnum>14771<displaytext> [48]</displaytext><r ecord=""><rec- number="">14771 number><foreign-< td=""><td>0.39 g/L or 0.039 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Dossier<year>2020<recnum>14771 </recnum><display text="">[48]<record><rec number="">14771</rec><foreign-< td=""></foreign-<></record></display></year></cite></endnote></td></foreign-<></rec-></r></recnum></au></cite></endnote>	0.39 g/L or 0.039 wt% at 25°C [ADDIN EN.CITE <endnote><cite>Dossier<year>2020<recnum>14771 </recnum><display text="">[48]<record><rec number="">14771</rec><foreign-< td=""></foreign-<></record></display></year></cite></endnote>

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^{*}Not all of the surface tension measurement references identified are run at exactly 20°C, but they are sufficiently close (within 5°C) so as not to affect the measurement. In addition, several measurements were run at 0.1% instead of the recommended 0.5%. Increasing the concentration to 0.5% is likely to lower the surface tension.

^{**}Carboxylic acid compounds, such as oleoyl sarcosine, have a carboxyl group pKa value of ~5, thus at physiological pH values maintained near 7 in the lung, the carboxyl group will be 99% in the anionic form according the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation. Since sodium is the major cation in mammalian body fluids (~145 mM), the use of the sodium oleoyl sarcosine surface tension value is appropriate for its characterization.

^{***}Amphoteric: At pH 7, 90% expected to be nonionic; only small amount cationic.

Hazard Identification

There is concern for dysfunction of mucus, epithelial lining fluid, and natural surfactant lining in the various regions of the respiratory tract from inhalation of surfactants. There is also evidence that some surfactants or similar structures may also interfere with the cell membrane of the epithelium in these same regions [ADDIN EN.CITE | ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA |]. This effect on cell membranes is apparent from data on numerous surfactants indicating irritation to the skin and eye, as noted below. The capacity of exogenous surfactants to interfere with pulmonary surfactant and impair pulmonary function has been demonstrated in both human volunteers and in laboratory animals [51, 5-7]. The respiratory tract responses to inhaled surfactant aerosol is thought to be in proportion to the exposure concentration and duration, but available data on acute and repeated-dose effect levels are limited within each subcategory, which limits establishing a correlation between chemical properties and toxicity due to exposure methods (e.g., generated aerosol droplet size).

Nonionic Surfactants

In vivo studies

Several studies were identified for the nonionic siliconized superinone respiratory detergent, 4-(1,1,3,3-tetramethylbutyl)phenol polymer with formaldehyde and oxirane (CASRN 25301-02-4; commonly known as Defomarie, Alevaire, and Tyloxapol). Healthy human volunteers demonstrated significantly decreased respiratory compliance following acute inhalation of Defomaire [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Obenour</Author><Year>1963</Year><RecNum>13656</RecNu

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Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>>enour, R.

A.</author><author>Saltzman, H. A.</author><author>Sieker, H. O.</author><author>Green,

J. L.</author></authors></contributors><title>Effects of surface-active aerosols and

pulmonary congestion on lung compliance and resistance</title><secondary-

title>Circulation</secondary-title><alt-title>Circulation</alt-title></title></fill-

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title>Circulation</full-title><abbr-1>Circulation</abbr-1></alt-periodical><pages>888-

92</pages><volume>28</volume>dition>OBENOUR, R ASALTZMAN, H

A
SIEKER, H O
GREEN, J

L
1963/11/01</edition><keyword>Aerosols</keyword><keyword>Alcohols

</keyword><keyword>Ethanol</keyword><keyword>Heart

Failure</keyword><keyword>Humans</keyword><keyword>Infusions,

Parenteral</keyword><keyword>Injections,

Intravenous</keyword><keyword>Lung</keyword><keyword>Lung

Compliance</keyword><keyword>Respiratory

Function Tests</keyword><keyword>Silicones</keyword><keyword>Sodium

Chloride</keyword><keyword>Surface-Active

Agents</keyword></keywords><dates><year>1963</year><pub-

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(Linking)</isbn><accession-num>14079193</accession-num><all-num>0 (Aerosols):0

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3K9958V90M (Ethanol)
451W47IQ8X (Sodium Chloride)</call-num><urls></urls></remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-database-

provider><language>Eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. An increased minimum surface tension due to detergent was shown to be dose-dependent, using pulmonary surfactant extracted from dogs with the nonionic surfactant tyloxapol (Alevaire) *in vitro* [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. However, *in vivo* exposure of dogs to Alevaire (8-hour aerosol exposure; vehicle, particle size and distribution, and concentration not reported) produced little effect (only 1/10 dogs exposed to Alevaire showed increased minimum surface tension). The results did not support the dose-dependence of the effect and indicated that small amounts of detergent in the lungs may not detectably alter the surface tension-surface area relationship and that alteration of surface tension is unlikely to occur during reasonable use although there is considerable uncertainty regarding the internal dose achieved [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA].

Inhalation studies using dogs and/or sheep exposed to nonionic surfactant, tyloxapol, resulted in reduced oxygen content of arterial blood due to impaired gas exchange in the lung, increased pulmonary extravascular water volume and wet-to-dry weight ratio of the lungs, and grossly visible pulmonary edema and atelectasis (*i.e.*, collapsed alveoli) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. In the study by Modell *et al.* (1969) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA], no gross pathology differences were seen in detergent-exposed versus control lungs of dogs, although some portions of both control and exposed lungs were heavy and discolored reddish-purple, which may have been caused by fluid accumulation from the liquid

aerosol exposures and/or the use of hypotonic saline in the study (0.45% NaCl) since these effects were not observed in lungs treated with a less dense aerosol. Normal appearances were observed in the remaining areas of the lungs.

In rodents, irritation and inflammatory effects in the entire respiratory tract have been observed with varying degrees of severity. Acute inhalation exposure via nose-only administration for 4 hours in Wistar Han rats to a concentration of 5.1 mg/L (5,100 mg/m³) with an MMAD of 2.2 μm and a GSD of 2 to Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated (CASRN 9005-64-5), a chemical not irritating to the skin or eyes [ADDIN EN.CITE <EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14776</RecNum ><DisplayText>[52]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14776</rec-number><foreignkeys><key app="EN" db-id="sp9w2fxejsw0zre0azr5evearxfds0err5sr" timestamp="1596030693">14776</key></foreign-keys><ref-type name="Journal" Article">17</ref-type><contributors><author>Registration Dossier</author></authors></contributors><title>Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated, 1 -6.5 moles ethoxylated, CASRN: 9005-64-5, EC number: 500-018-3, Skin irritation/corrosion</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondarytitle></titles><periodical><full-title>European Chemicals Agency</fulltitle></periodical><pages>https://echa.europa.eu/hr/registration-dossier/-/registereddossier/13525/7/4/2</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite> </EndNote>], did not result in an increase in mortalities, clinical signs, or abnormalities in the gross pathology [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Dossier</Author><Year>2020</Year><RecNum>14777</RecNum

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><DisplayText>[53]</DisplayText><record><rec-number>14777</rec-number><foreign-
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Dossier</author></contributors><title>Sorbitan monolaurate, ethoxylated 1 -
6.5 moles ethoxylated, CASRN: 9005-64-5, EC number: 500-018-3, Acute Toxicity:
Inhalation</title><secondary-title>European Chemicals Agency</secondary-
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dossier/13525/7/3/3</pages><dates><year>2020</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cite>
</EndNote>]. A respiratory irritation study using plethysmography was performed on a mixture
containing octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA ],
which can be severely irritating to the skin and eyes, in male Webster mice exposed for 3 hours
to concentrations of 12, 22, 51, 118, and 134 mg/m<sup>3</sup> with 30-60 minutes recovery time (MMAD
and GSD not provided). Signs of pulmonary irritation were observed in animals at the two
highest concentrations as indicated by a decrease in respiratory frequency (33-58% decrease);
this response was preceded by an increase in respiratory frequency (11-12.5% increase) at the
highest three concentrations without an increase in gross lung abnormalities, pulmonary edema,
or lung weight [ ADDIN EN.CITE
<EndNote><Cite><Author>Alarie</Author><Year>1992</Year><RecNum>14778</RecNum>
<DisplayText>[54]/DisplayText><record><rec-number>14778</rec-number><foreign-</pre>
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containing Polyethylene Glycol Mono(Octyl)Phenyl Eether CAS #9035-19-5</title><secondary-

title>ChemView - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency</secondary-

title></title></periodical><full-title>ChemView - U.S. Environmental Protection Agency</full-title></periodical><pages>37,

https://chemview.epa.gov/chemview/proxy?filename=09022526800b76c9_86960000465_09-26-2011_8D_PHCS_Original%20-

%2086960000465.pdf</pages><dates><year>1992</year></dates><urls></urls></record></Cit e></EndNote>]. An acute inhalation exposure study in Syrian hamsters exposed to 3.0 mg/L of octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol with varying exposure durations showed that lung deposition directly corresponded to mortality with an LD $_{50}$ of 1300-2100 μ g with an MMAD of 1.47 μ m and a GSD of 1.84 [ADDIN EN.CITE

<EndNote><Cite><Author>Damon</Author><Year>1982</Year><RecNum>13323</RecNum
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G.</author><author>Halliwell, W. H.</author><author>Henderson, T.

 $R. < / author > < author > Mokler, \ B. \ V. < / author > < author > Jones, \ R.$

K.</author></authors></contributors><titles><title>Acute toxicity of polyethylene glycol pisooctylphenol ether in syrian hamsters exposed by inhalation or bronchopulmonary
lavage</title><secondary-title>Toxicology and applied pharmacology</secondary-title><alt-

title>Toxicol Appl Pharmacol</alt-title></title></periodical><full-title>Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology</full-title><abbr-1>Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.</abbr-1></periodical><pages>53-61</pages><volume>63</volume><number>1</number><edition>Damon, E G
Halliwell, W H
Henderson, T R
Mokler, B V
Jones, R K
1982/03/30</edition><keyword>Animals</keyword><keyword>Cricetinae </keyword><keyword>Detergents/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Dose-Response Relationship, Drug</keyword><keyword>Keyword><keyword>Lethal Dose 50</keyword><keyword>Lung/ drug effects/pathology</keyword><keyword>Male</keyword><keyword>Mesocricetus</keyword>< keyword>Octoxynol</keyword>Keyword>Polyethylene Glycols/administration & to sage/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Surface-Active Agents/ toxicity</keyword><keyword>Therapeutic Irrigation</keyword></keywords><dates><year>1982</year><pub-dates><date>Mar 30</date></pub-dates></dates><isbn>0041-008X (Print)0041-008X (Linking)</isbn><accession-num>7071873</accession-num><call-num>0 (Detergents)0 (Surface-Active Agents)
30IQX730WE (Polyethylene Glycols)
9002-93-1 (Octoxynol)</call-num><urls></urls><remote-database-provider>NLM</remote-databaseprovider><language>Eng</language></record></Cite></EndNote>]. The deaths in these animals were attributed to severe laryngeal edema and ulcerative laryngitis while the lower airways in these animals were relatively free of serious pathologies which likely indicates limited deposition to the lower airways in this study. The authors hypothesized that these observed effects were due to large tracheobronchial deposition following the aerosol exposure and the mucociliary clearance of the chemical resulted in a large concentration on the laryngeal mucosa,

though laryngeal deposition is typically a function of aerodynamics. In the only 2-week whole-body inhalation study for nonionic surfactants, male and female Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed to 5.3 and 10.3 mg/m³ (5/sex/dose; MMAD 1.8 µm, GSD 1.8) octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA]. Slight to minimal subacute inflammation of the alveolar walls and hyperplasia of the alveolar/bronchiolar epithelium was reported, in addition to an increase in slight discoloration of the lungs, increased lung weight, and mucoid nasal discharge; a LOAEC of 5.3 mg/m³ was identified.

Mechanistic studies

In vitro studies of surfactant on cell membranes have provided evidence of possible modes of action (MOAs). Warisnoicharoen *et al.* (2003) [ADDIN EN.CITE ADDIN EN.CITE.DATA] evaluated the cytotoxicity of the nonionic surfactants polyoxyethylene-10-oleyl ether (C_{18:1}E₁₀; CASRN 9004-98-2), polyoxyethylene-10-dodecyl ether (C₁₂E₁₀; CASRN 9002-92-0), and N,N-dimethyl-dodecylamine-N-oxide (C₁₂AO; CASRN 1643-20-5) on submerged cultured human bronchial epithelium cells (16-HBE140-) *in vitro*, using the MTT cell viability assay by exposing the cells to 0.1mL of the serially diluted microemulsion (particle size not reported) for 30 minutes followed by a 60 minute incubation with a MTT solution. All surfactants tested were cytotoxic at concentrations near or below their critical aggregation (micellular) concentrations (as determined by surface tension measurements), suggesting that toxicity was due to the disruption caused by the partitioning of monomeric surfactant into the cell membrane.